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Bilingual teacher welfare.

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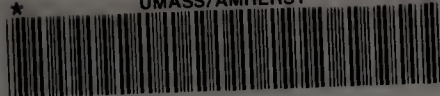
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BILINGUAL TEACHER WELFARE

A Dissertation Presented

by

CARMELO BORGES

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts Amherst in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

February 2000

School of Education

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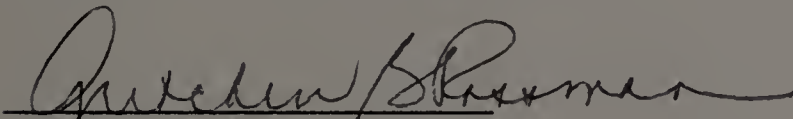
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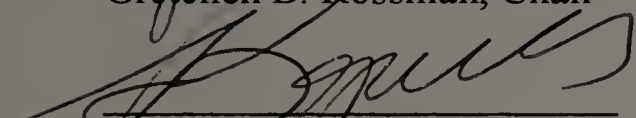
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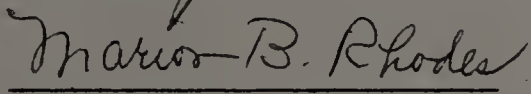
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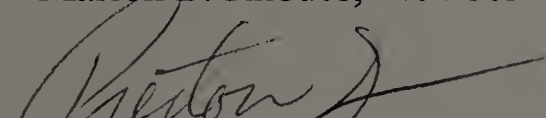
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DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my mom.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work would not have been possible without the help of many people. I would like to thank the participants in this study; their willingness to let me interview them in order to gain a complete understanding of what it's like to be a bilingual teacher is truly appreciated. Their time and sincerity has also been most helpful in the crafting of this document.

I am grateful to the members of my committee for their support and guidance throughout this process. Gretchen Rossman, chair of the committee, has been an encourager, a mentor and ally for language minorities. Benjamin Rodriguez, Preston Green, and Marion Rhodes, members of the committee, have guided the focus of this study. Their insight is much appreciated.

To my best friend, Josue Lugo, who believed in me and encouraged me to complete this work. My gratitude also extends to Barbara Senecal who supported me throughout this endeavor in many different ways.

ABSTRACT

BILINGUAL TEACHER WELFARE

FEBRUARY 2000

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This study was developed because there is very little research covering the topic of bilingual teachers. Literature that describes how bilingual teachers view their role within the whole school environment, what makes their career unique from other teachers, their perspectives on bilingual education, their needs, and the issues most affecting them, was lacking. Therefore, this study attempts to fill that gap within the literature.

Through qualitative in-depth interviewing, the participants in this study were encouraged to discuss the issues and topics most relevant to them from a set of interview guide questions. Two groups of participants, former bilingual teachers and teachers currently working in a bilingual program, were selected to add breadth and depth to the research findings. The literature review chapter sheds light on what little data is available that is relevant to the target group and brings forth gray areas which need to be studied. Further, this chapter provides an overview of multiple issues which affect the field of bilingual education, but which do not currently consider the perspectives of bilingual teachers. This section was incorporated in order to provide solid background information as well as to allow the participants to give their views on some of the topics.

This study documents the following general findings about bilingual teachers at Westpoint School District:

- Most people who pursue a career in bilingual education are native

speakers of the language in which they teach and have previous teaching experience in their native land.

- Political threats to bilingual education are causing former bilingual teachers to leave their program, seeking job security.
- Bilingual teachers' workloads are greater than average because of the lack of resources, the absence of support personnel, dual language teaching, student-related issues, the lack of student academic support programs, and having to implement the goals of the program.
- A bilingual teacher's role entails performing the duties customarily performed by support personnel as well as implementing the goals of bilingual programs and student academic support programs.
- Participants in this study perceive a lack of professional equality between bilingual teachers and other educators.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

Very little research has been done on bilingual teachers: the role they play in the schools; their satisfaction or lack of satisfaction over the profession; their needs; their perceptions about issues affecting bilingual education today; their insights on the areas where training is needed; and their unique experiences in the school environment. Consequently, their problems, ideas, and opinions are unknown to others in the field of education. This dissertation attempts to fill the gaps that exist in the literature surrounding bilingual teachers.

Some researchers have noted that studies in this area are lacking. Lemberger (1992) states that the literature on bilingual education covering the legal, political, and methodological aspects rarely include teacher voices. Also, Markham, Green, and Ross (1996) made reference to the fact that few studies focus on the role of bilingual teachers in the classroom.

Two main bodies of literature almost excluded this subject: research on teachers in general and research on bilingual education. Data on educators in general were incorporated into the first section of the literature review chapter to show that most teacher-related findings come from studies centered on teachers of the regular track. Also, little evidence was found that showed how the work experiences of bilingual and mainstream teachers within the school environment differ. The second section of the literature review chapter incorporates a realm of issues affecting bilingual education that failed to include the perspectives of bilingual teachers.

Other related issues supporting the need to know more about the subject are the shortage of and demand for bilingual teachers. Boe (1990), Schmidt (1992), and Sosa and Gonzalez (1993) covered many aspects of this problem as noted in the literature review chapter. One of the factors affecting the demand for bilingual teachers is the growing number of limited English-proficient pupils nationwide. This factor also supports the need for a study focused on bilingual teachers.

The issue of attrition has been seen to affect bilingual teacher shortage. It sets forth the condition that there may be internal and external problems in the workplace that should be identified from a teacher's perspective. Therefore, former bilingual teachers were incorporated into this study not only to seek answers relative to the problem of attrition, but also to add breadth and depth to other findings pertinent to bilingual teachers.

This study was conducted at the Westpoint School District (pseudonym) in Massachusetts. Over the years, the state has reduced the bilingual teacher certification requirements in order to increase the number of educators entering the work force and as intent to alleviate the problem of teacher shortage. As a result, the quality of teachers working with language minority children was affected (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994). Because teachers falling into this category are still employed in school districts, particularly the targeted setting for this study, there is a need to know from their point of view more about how to bridge that gap they have in training as well as the role they play at their schools.

The little data available on these subjects in addition to the new findings gathered as a result of this study will be referred to as bilingual teacher welfare. This research seeks to bridge the gap that exists in the literature by allowing us to acquire a better

understanding of the role of the bilingual teachers in the whole education spectrum. It also seeks to lay the foundation for larger discussions about bilingual teachers.

Statement of Purpose

This study attempts to answer the following questions about bilingual teachers, former and active, in the Westpoint School District:

1. Why do some teachers pursue a career in bilingual education?
2. Why do former bilingual teachers leave the teaching profession and/or transfer to another area of education?
3. What are some of the needs bilingual teachers have that currently demand most attention?
4. What common themes are shared amongst former and active bilingual teachers that will help us understand their role in education?
5. What are the issues currently affecting bilingual teachers the most?
6. How do former and active bilingual teachers perceive their work to be different from that of teachers in the mainstream?

In order to increase the validity of the data gathered, two distinct groups of people from Westpoint School District were chosen for this study. One group consists of eight teachers who pursued the field of education and are currently employed in bilingual education. The other is a group of eight individuals who were once bilingual teachers. The second group contains people who no longer follow the teaching profession as well as people who have transferred out of the program to work in other areas of education. It is intended that these two distinguished groups, while they share one common ground, will offer differing perspectives to strengthen the research data. The diverse backgrounds

of the participants also add breadth and depth to the research findings.

Through qualitative in-depth interviewing, the participants were encouraged to engage in a discussion based on a set of formulated interview guide questions. Most of the guide questions, with the exception of one, were focused on topics surrounding the immediate school environment. The interview process also offered the flexibility for the interviewees to discuss the issues most relevant to them and other factors. The goal was to retrieve from the participants their honest opinions about the given topics. Having the participants talk about themselves and their experiences in comparison to teachers of the regular track had a tremendous impact on their honesty and willingness to participate in the study.

Significance of the Study

This dissertation will help lay a foundation for understanding bilingual teachers since there seems to be a limited amount of research focused on this area of education. Also, it may help re-establish the way we research and re-think the area of bilingual education. In addition, this study may shed light on new issues pertinent to bilingual teacher welfare that may be in need of research.

The significance for policy at the state level seems almost endless. First, remedies can be found to increase the pool of bilingual teachers as well as to stabilize retention. Politicians can re-think the way they establish educational policy pertinent to language minority students as well as develop new educational opportunities and academic standards for them. Guidelines for bilingual program implementation can also be set at the state level. In addition, new frameworks for teacher training programs at colleges and universities, as well as inservice programs for re-certification, can be re-designed.

Further, implications pertinent to funding can arise and laws geared to parents and the community can be devised.

At the district level, superintendents and school committees can increase their support for bilingual programs in terms of providing instructional resources, support personnel, and adequate inservice programs for all staff as well as administrators. At the school level, the administration and staff can establish consistency in the roles they play in the bilingual program for program implementation and for the transition of bilingual students into the mainstream. Schools should work toward identifying the characteristics of and emphasize the benefits of a pluralistic staff in order to establish bridges between all teachers as well as between students, parents, and the community.

Limitations of the Study

"The role of the researcher is not necessarily to map and conquer the world but to sophisticate the beholding of it" (Stake, 1995, p. 43). There are many aspects to the profession of bilingual teachers; however, this study will focus primarily on the perceptions of bilingual teachers with respect to their immediate work environment. The number of subjects participating in this study and the fact that they were only selected from the Westpoint School District are also limitations of this study. These limits will influence the reader's interpretation of the findings and use of the data. However, putting these limits on the research will also provide a concrete, living context in which to frame a larger discussion about the welfare of bilingual educators.

Although it was the only appropriate way to gather the data for this study, it is a limitation that data was collected only through in-depth interviewing. This approach in itself may generate the following limitations: the participants may be unwilling to share

all that the researcher hopes for them to share; the participants may be unaware of recurring patterns in their lives; the researcher may not ask questions that evoke long narratives from the participants; and the interviewees may not understand the questions thoroughly or the subject discussed (Marshall & Rossman, 1995). Every attempt is made to represent a broad range of opinions; however, it must be said that the data does not represent every person's opinion in each of the constituent groups, nor the practice of every teacher in his/her classroom.

Another limitation of the study exists in the potential for researcher bias. While every attempt is made to present the data and draw conclusions without bias, there is subjectivity inherent in any researcher's view of the phenomenon studied. The key is to recognize that subjectivity at the outset and to watch for signs of its surfacing throughout the process. The recognition of my own bias begins with an understanding that writing only from what I know has its limitations.

It is important to recognize that, when the main tool for data gathering is human, subjectivity will play a role in the process. Glesne and Peshkin (1992) advise researchers to take on their subjectivity through a heightened sense of awareness. Awareness of subjectivity and knowing when it can be of use to the researcher and when it hinders research are key. "Standard qualitative designs call for the persons most responsible for interpretations to be in the field, making observations, exercising subjective judgment, analyzing and synthesizing, all the while realizing their own consciousness" (Stake, 1995, p. 41). Eisner (1998) and Glesne and Peshkin (1992) point out that subjectivity is not just an enemy of the researcher in the search for truth. There are times when emotions and questions may be indications that there exists some other avenue not previously

contemplated. In Chapter III, I address how I will deal with these challenges so as to present the data openly and honestly.

Terms

1. Bilingual education -- "an educational program that uses two languages for instruction, English and another language. All bilingual programs are first and foremost intended to provide pupils with effective access to a full, high quality education" (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994, p. 9).
2. Bilingual individual -- "one person with more than one language who usually has to function in more than one cultural context" (p. 9).
3. Language minority -- "those whose first language is not English" (p. 9).
4. Teacher of a bilingual program -- "a teacher with a speaking and reading ability in a language other than English in which bilingual education is offered and with communicative skills in English" (M.G.L. Chapter 71A, section 2).
5. Limited English-proficient (LEP) pupil -- a child who was or was not born in the United States of non-English speaking parents, whose native tongue is a language other than English, and who is incapable of performing ordinary class-work in English.

Summary and Outline of Remaining Chapters

Chapter I has set the stage for an in-depth examination of bilingual teacher welfare. This type of study is quite complex since there are multiple factors that not only affect the target group at the school level, but other external factors that have a direct or indirect impact on them and must be taken into consideration, especially when analyzing the data gathered. The participants will nevertheless provide insights that will have

implications for the state department of education as well as individual school districts and schools.

The remaining chapters will present a framework for the reader to use in his/her own consideration and interpretation of the study presented. Chapter II presents a review of the literature on bilingual teachers. There are two sections in the literature review chapter. The first outlines an argument based on what is documented about bilingual teachers and what we still do not know. The other section gives an overview of multiple issues affecting the field of bilingual education. Some researchers claim that the perspectives of bilingual teachers are not included on these issues.

Chapter III discusses the research methodology employed in this study in the context of the literature on qualitative research methods. It describes in detail the process for data collection, which is in-depth interviews. Chapters II and III set the stage for the remainder of the dissertation. The actual research is the focus of Chapter IV. This is where the data is examined through thematic contexts that emerged during the analysis of the in-depth interviews.

The final chapter examines the data in the context of implications for other school districts with bilingual programs as well as for the state government. Chapter V also identifies avenues for further study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter is primarily composed of two sections: bilingual teachers and bilingual education issues. The first section analyzes studies focusing on bilingual teachers. The second part examines issues that affect bilingual educators, even though this part does not include the perspective of or how they impact this group of teachers. Each of these sections contains multiple sub-topics or sub-sections focusing on distinct aspects of the two major topics.

Finding studies focusing on bilingual teachers was a very difficult task in this project. A major problem was that the literature generally focused on teachers in the regular track. In both areas, the literature emphasizing bilingual teachers had to be extracted with a "fine-toothed comb." As a result, the data selected to fill this void brought forth new issues and ideas about the topic that will be discussed in this next section.

Bilingual Teachers

Introduction

A review of the relevant literature in this study reveals that very little is known about bilingual teachers: the role they play in the schools; their satisfaction or lack of over the profession; their needs; their perceptions about issues affecting bilingual education today; their insights on the areas where training is needed; what problems are currently affecting them the most; and what unique experiences they encounter in the

school environment. It almost seems that the world of research has ignored these subjects; thus, their problems, ideas, and opinions may have been kept from society. This lack of studies made it clear that issues concerning bilingual teachers need to be addressed.

Supporting evidence shows that there are actual claims made by some researchers that studies in this area are lacking. According to Lemberger (1992), "what is missing from the literature are the teachers' voices" (p. 1). The literature on bilingual education covering the legal, political, and methodological aspects rarely include teacher voices. Also, Markham, Green, and Ross (1996) support this claim in their study: "we were unable to find any research that explored what stressors ESL/bilingual teachers experience" (p. 142).

The existing literature focused on bilingual teachers does reveal some areas of concern affecting this group of educators. Three sub-sections have been devoted to shedding light on those concerns. The first relates to what studies say are the factors that affect monolingual and bilingual teachers in the school environment. This discussion will help support the fact that some work experiences of bilingual teachers are different from those of teachers in the regular track.

The next sub-section deals with bilingual teacher shortage and demand. A detailed discussion about factors that contribute to these issues will be presented as well as steps taken to alleviate this problem. The last sub-section relates to certification. A historical perspective of changes in certification requirements will be presented as well as the problems that resulted from them and the factors that caused those changes. A closer review of the preparation and training necessary for bilingual educators is discussed to

also present the argument that there are differences between bilingual and regular educators in the experiences they have at school.

Work Environment Issues

As previously mentioned, studies focusing on bilingual teachers had to be extracted with difficulty from different bodies of literature. This was also influenced by the act of labeling data as bilingual or regular teachers. The decision was then made that other areas of research would be reviewed to see if they contained data that applied to the target subject. Looking at studies labeled "teachers" was considered a next step approach. As a result, teacher data that was identified as applying to bilingual teachers, even though the term bilingual educators was not used throughout that particular study, was also incorporated into this dissertation. An educated decision for using the information was influenced by my experience as a teacher.

In some instances, different sources of data presented some common factors that affect both bilingual and regular teachers (Hernandez, 1993; Lam, 1992; Lemberger, 1992; Sosa & Gonzalez, 1993; Walsh, 1994). When comparing the data, it was found that some of the same factors had an impact on both groups of educators but in a different way. This becomes supporting evidence that the experiences of regular and bilingual teachers in the work environment differ.

Research studies claim that many teachers experience great satisfaction and success in their jobs. Watching students develop new skills and gain an appreciation of knowledge and learning can be very rewarding. These are the reasons why many teachers enter the field of education. However, there are negative factors affecting teachers' job performance (Meier, 1989; Sosa & Gonzalez, 1993).

Time is an important factor that highly affects a teacher's job performance. In the course of the day, there is sometimes no opportunity and certainly no incentive to compare notes with colleagues, linger with students at the end of classes, or even think about how teachers might change their presentation for the next class. Time may not be available to get to know the peculiarities of each student and, because many teachers have a load of up to 150 students or more, most dare not give homework that requires anything more than perfunctory marking or review. Further, some may have no time or place for professional privacy, away from their students (Meier, 1989).

According to the 1998-99 Occupational Outlook Handbook (1998), many teachers work more than 40 hours a week, including school duties performed outside the classroom. Even when most work the traditional 10-month school year with a 2-month vacation during the summer, many teach in summer sessions, take other jobs, and enroll in college courses and/or workshops to continue their education.

One negative occupational factor that affects both teachers in the regular track and bilingual educators is the heavy workloads. Workload refers to working in over-crowded classrooms, correcting students' work, preparing for more than one subject, or other job-related duties (Meier, 1989; Walsh, 1994). However, Sosa and Gonzalez (1993) state that the bilingual teachers' preparation and workload is greater than the average for teachers in the regular track. This is because bilingual teachers have to teach in two languages.

The issue of isolation has also been documented for both teachers in the regular track and bilingual educators. Teachers are sometimes isolated from their colleagues since they often work alone in a classroom full of students (1998-99 Occupational Outlook Handbook, 1998). Hernandez (1993) states that teachers are housed in little cubicles, with little or no interaction among themselves to provide professional support to

one another. Sosa and Gonzalez (1993) claim that, for bilingual teachers, this feeling of isolation is exacerbated because they do not use English as the primary vehicle for instruction. Also, they are a numerical minority group in schools since often only one classroom per grade level is designated bilingual.

Another stressor experienced by most educators is that they feel either devalued or not supported by the system. This can be reflected when teachers are not provided with the basic facilities that even the poorest businesses provide, such as telephones, computers, copying machines, typewriters, and support staff (Meier, 1989). Bilingual teachers are at a greater disadvantage because they have limited accessibility to commercially prepared instructional material (Lam, 1992; Sosa & Gonzalez, 1993).

In addition, most teachers feel devalued and not supported when blamed for the condition, performance, and accountability of their schools (Meier, 1989). For bilingual teachers, this also means that there are usually common conflicts between the school principal and themselves as to how to best serve the limited-English-proficient students. Further, there is a lack of support especially when there is the need for: (a) direct assistance in implementing bilingual education strategies and practices; (b) assistance in teaching non-traditional students (obtaining materials, receiving feedback on lesson plans, and observing lessons); (c) and assistance to reduce the anxiety and stress associated with the implementation of bilingual education, especially in schools where the program is experiencing resistance from other teachers (Gonzalez & Sosa, 1993).

Although there are common issues that affect both groups of educators (i.e., isolation, lack of support, and heavy workloads), it was indicated that these problems have a different and perhaps a bigger impact on bilingual teachers than they do on regular teachers (Sosa & Gonzalez, 1993). In fact, Lemberger (1992) documents that there are

issues among these two groups because sometimes regular teachers do not show or express collegial acceptance of bilingual teachers. All of this documentation supports that the bilingual teacher profession is more affected by some issues than teachers working in the mainstream.

Different from the mainstream teachers, the literature further suggests that bilingual educators have bigger job responsibilities since they have to take over the duty of implementing the program in their school (Gonzalez & Sosa, 1993; Lam, 1992). Administrators seem to be less concerned with the accountability of bilingual programs and, therefore, they leave this matter in the hands of teachers (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994).

In summarizing this sub-section, studies that discussed the positive aspects of bilingual teaching were lacking, such as why teachers enter this particular field or their role in the schools. In fact, most of the data related to this topic was negative. This supports the first argument that there is a gap in the literature covering all aspects of bilingual teachers. In the next sub-section, data covering the issues of shortage and demand is brought forth. The problem of retention as it fits into the framework of this dissertation is described.

Shortage and Demand

The issues of shortage of and demand for qualified bilingual personnel has affected bilingual programs throughout the nation (Lam, 1992). Shortage refers to the lack of or the small availability of bilingual teachers. Demand refers to the need for bilingual teachers to be employed in the workforce. In this section, factors affecting both shortage and demand will be discussed.

According to Boe (1990), there are two ways to determine shortage and demand. One is by taking the teacher/student ratio and dividing that by the total student population. The other is by adding up the existing number of funded teaching positions available. Schmidt (1992) calculated bilingual teacher shortage through means of the first formula. He estimated that since five percent of American school children can be categorized as limited-English proficient, assuming then that the general pupil-teacher ratio is 20 to 1, the nation is already about 175,000 short or in demand of bilingual teachers.

Why is there a shortage of qualified personnel for bilingual teaching positions? Lam (1992) claims that this problem has existed ever since bilingual programs were first implemented in the late 1960s or early 1970s. There appears to have been a shortage of bilingual teachers having the qualifications specified in the Title VII Rules and Regulations. However, the two most probable current causes of this problem are that candidates are not entering the field of bilingual education for numerous reasons, and that teachers are leaving the profession and/ or transferring out of the program (Boe, 1990; Schmidt, 1992; Sosa & Gonzalez, 1993; Weiss, 1987).

According to Sosa and Gonzalez (1993), the number of ethnic minority students entering the teaching profession is low. Statistics show that American universities graduate about 100,000 minority students with bachelor's degrees in all disciplines on a yearly basis, of which fewer than 10% are in education. According to Walsh (1994), in 1991, the U.S. teacher population was 87% white, 8% African American, 3% Hispanic, and 1% Asian. Teachers certified to teach in bilingual education classrooms comprise less than 1% (Sosa & Gonzalez, 1993).

There are many documented reasons why candidates are not entering the field of bilingual education. Sosa and Gonzalez (1993) claim that, while many language-minority students are deterred from becoming bilingual teachers by lack of financial aid to finish college, others find the path to teaching jobs blocked by tougher high-school-graduation and college-entrance requirements adopted in the name of education reform. According to Boe (1990), other reasons why teachers do not enter this field are language fluency, race, ethnicity and age, economic considerations, sociological considerations (personal family structure), and urbanity of school environment.

The second probable cause as to why there is a shortage of bilingual teachers is the fact that they are leaving the profession and/or transferring out of the program. Studies claim that there is a particularly high attrition rate of certified educators in bilingual programs due to internal and external factors, aside from personal reasons (Boe, 1990; Gonzalez & Sosa, 1993; Schmidt, 1992). The problem of retention may be the result of there being a disproportionate number of minority candidates failing the test required for certification (Schmidt, 1992; Weiss, 1987). Schmidt (1992) "has documented the elimination of 94,873 teachers, including 34,562 Hispanics," in 35 states as a result of competency testing (p. 1). The next sub-section goes into greater detail about other issues related to certification.

Other external factors and personal reasons that influence exit attrition include child rearing, retirement, death, other employment, and higher education (Boe, 1990; Weiss, 1987). On the other hand, Gonzalez and Sosa (1993) indicate that teachers discontinue working in bilingual programs because the negative factors related to their job far out-number the positive factors they experience in their profession. They have "a greater than average workload due to dual language instruction; a feeling of isolation in

their teaching area and grade level; and limited accessibility to commercially prepared instructional materials" (p. 2). In addition, Weiss (1987) claims that the problem of retention exists because the field of education might have alienated many members of minority groups as they moved through its system.

Previously, a documented number of teaching candidates lost to standardized teacher tests was reported by Schmidt (1992). However, the number of teachers who have left bilingual programs due to internal factors and personal reasons is hard to document unless individual school districts provide that data (Boe, 1990; Gonzalez & Sosa, 1993; Weiss, 1987). School systems may be hesitant or unwilling to share that information because this is a sensitive issue.

At the Westpoint School District (pseudonym) in Massachusetts, where this study was conducted, the director of bilingual programs revealed in an interview that in the 1996-97 school year, at least eight positions were available because people had either resigned from their jobs or transferred into other areas of education. In the 1997-98 school year, eight positions were also left open. In the 1998-99 school year, three people had resigned before the school year was over (Gomez, 1998).

Westpoint's bilingual program director also provided insights as to why bilingual teachers leave or transfer out of the program. According to the director, some bilingual teachers have left the schools system because of higher salary offered in other school districts, while others transfer out of the program because of the greater than average workload. Since most bilingual teachers at Westpoint come from Puerto Rico, some cannot sustain long winters for health reasons and, as a result, they resign from their teaching positions (Gomez, 1998).

The issue of demand for certified bilingual personnel has been well documented by many sources. On the national level, the field of bilingual education received the highest mean rating in teacher demand. On a scale from 1.00 to 5.00 with 5.00 considered to be extremely high, bilingual education received a rating of 4.35 (Boe, 1990; Gonzalez & Sosa, 1993). Other studies reveal specific areas within bilingual education that are severely in demand. Data show that nearly 90 percent of bilingual teachers work in kindergarten through grade 6, leaving the high school grades with little access to them. Also, bilingual educators are needed to teach Asian students as well as special education and vocational education (Schmidt, 1992). According to the 1998-99 Occupational Outlook Handbook (1998), many districts have difficulty hiring qualified bilingual teachers in mathematics, chemistry, physics, and computer science. Teachers who are geographically mobile and who obtain licensure in more than one subject should have a distinct advantage in finding a job.

The demand for bilingual educators has resulted from two factors. One is teacher shortage and the other is the growing enrollment of language minority children. It is obvious that the absence of teachers will have a negative impact on schools and, thus, create a demand for them. Children cannot be serviced in the absence of teachers (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994; Weiss, 1987).

Throughout this country, states are facing dramatic increases in their number of pupils unable to perform regular class work in English, which in turn increases bilingual teacher demand (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994). The number of children who speak a language other than English at home increased by 38% during the 1990s to 6.3 million. The states with high concentration of language minority students are

California, Florida, Texas, New York, Arizona, and New Mexico (Walsh, 1994). For the future, Weiss (1987, p. 58) states that:

Although the minority population of the United States is projected to grow to 32% by the year 2020, significantly expanding the demand for minority teachers in the years ahead, the pool of minority teachers is expected to drop to 5% of the total number of teachers in the year 2000.

In Massachusetts, in 1993, there were 105,902 language minority pupils in the Commonwealth, making up 12% of the total public school population of which 5% could not do regular class work in English. Currently, the Commonwealth faces a demand for certified bilingual teachers who have received a preparation of sufficient breadth and depth, and who possess necessary language skills (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994).

How are school districts across the nation trying to increase the pool of qualified bilingual personnel to meet their growing demand? Across the nation, schools will need to hire up to two million new teachers over the next decade. According to Schmidt (1992), school officials are considering how to break the vicious cycle created when the lack of good bilingual teachers and professors deters language minority pupils from completing enough school to become bilingual instructors themselves. In addition, given this demand, states and districts are becoming aggressive in their ways to staff their schools. "Recruitment strategies include bonuses, housing assistance, and higher starting salaries" (Bradley, 1998, p. 1).

At the federal level, when the Bilingual Education Act or Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act was re-authorized in 1993, officials from the U.S. Department of Education's Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages recommended that the Act contain funding for teacher training, in particular for the in-

service training of bilingual teacher aides. Also, there is language in the national standards for teacher training programs to ensure that new bilingual teachers and teachers of English as second language are ready to enter the field (Schmidt, 1992).

The Dallas, Texas, school district was giving a \$1,500 signing bonus to 900 qualifying new teachers (Bradley, 1998). In Florida, the State Legislature has established a number of programs to provide incentives and financial support to those capable and promising pupils interested in teaching in high priority location areas (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994).

In other states, school districts are trying to address teacher supply and quality simultaneously. "California, which will need between 260,000 and 300,000 new teachers in the next decade, is spending money on teacher preparation, recruitment, and mentoring programs at a record rate. Still the state's public schools currently employ some 29,000 uncertified teachers" (Bradley, 1998, p. 3). In Maryland, a 10 percent state income tax break for teachers has been proposed. Also, the department of education's legislative package proposed making expenditures for professional development materials and membership dues for professional organizations tax deductible. "Maryland will need 11,000 more teachers by 2001 to keep pace with a booming student enrollment and teacher retirements" (p. 3).

Massachusetts is implementing a more aggressive campaign called Attracting Excellence to Teaching. The converse is also true, whereby the state recognizes and accepts teaching certificates from other states. Additionally, the Commonwealth may agree to assist outstanding students who choose to teach in the state's public schools to repay their student loans (M.G.L. Chapter 15A, Section 19A). Massachusetts' lawmakers created a \$60 million pool that will generate money to pay \$20,000 signing bonuses to

about 100 highly qualified new teachers each year. The money would be paid out over four years (Bradley, 1998).

In the next sub-section, supporting evidence focusing on Massachusetts will show that certification requirements at times affect bilingual teacher shortage and demand. Other issues relevant to certification and training will also surface. Mainstream teachers are brought to this discussion since they play an important role in the mainstreaming of language minority students.

Certification

During 1991-92, there were 2,960 staff members reported for bilingual programs. Forty-seven percent were full time bilingual teachers; 16 percent were ESL teachers; and the other 37 percent accounts for bilingual paraprofessionals, counselors, etc. Also, 65 percent had teaching certificates; 23 percent were on waivers; and 12 percent were grandfathered. The term "grandfathered" is used to describe ESL teachers who were certified in elementary education or English, and were allowed to teach English to bilingual pupils. While many teachers were new to the field, some were in the process of obtaining certification and are considered to be on waiver. Further, the percentages of staff on waivers varies by language groups-- Haitian Creole 54%, Lao 66%, Khmer 78%, and Russian 80% (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994).

In 1971, when the Massachusetts General Laws Chapter 71A was passed, the following regulations and specifications regarding bilingual teacher certification were proposed: that educators prove their bilingual knowledge in language and culture through a state language exam; complete a practicum in a bilingual classroom; and take specific courses in bilingual methods and materials. In 1982, these certification requirements were

modified and the only requirement that remained was the language and culture exam. As a result, teachers did not need specific courses in bilingual education and therefore, there was no need for the Department of Education to approve any bilingual certification programs at state colleges or universities (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994). However, bilingual teachers were required to hold a regular education certificate.

There were two documented reasons that influenced these changes taking place back in 1982. One was the bilingual teacher shortage and the increase in language minority pupil enrollment. "The Commonwealth faces a shortage of certified bilingual teachers who have received a preparation of sufficient breadth and depth, and who possess necessary language skills" (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994, p. 18). According to Lam (1992), this shortage problem has existed ever since bilingual programs were first implemented in the late 1960s and early 1970s throughout the nation. Therefore, certification requirements were reduced in order to allow more teachers to enter the work force. Simultaneously, a demand for bilingual personnel had been created as a result of the growing increase of LEP pupil enrollment in public schools (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994).

As mentioned in the previous sub-section, standardized tests required for certification affect the retention of teaching candidates. This, in turn, decreases the pool of bilingual teachers. However, this puts into question whether the standards for certification are too high and teaching candidates are set up for failure or that, perhaps, some candidates are just not qualified. Nevertheless, the literature seems to support that certification requirements do impact the bilingual teacher shortage (Schmidt, 1992; Weiss, 1987).

Changes in certification also triggered another issue. As a result of there being limited certification requirements, new teachers hired may not be sufficiently knowledgeable about the needs and strengths of bilingual pupils unless the training they received went beyond the certification requirements (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994). This is not a problem that exists only in the state of Massachusetts. At the national level, people are wrestling over the issues of how to bring more people into the bilingual teaching field without significantly lowering certification standards. (Schmidt, 1992).

In 1992, certification requirements were changed again. A language exam and a set of competencies were mandated to fulfill the knowledge of the culture requirement. These competencies could be fulfilled either by taking a course or developing a portfolio. In 1994, a more complete list of competencies for bilingual teacher certification, for all levels, was established. These competencies dealt with subject matter and pedagogical content knowledge (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994).

After colleges and universities throughout the state had done away with their bilingual education certification programs, prospective teachers had to wait until the Department of Education approved new programs. The change in competencies and certification requirements along with the lack of teacher certification programs clearly decreased the number of teachers available to teach in bilingual programs. In the meantime, candidates for certification were encouraged to send their transcripts to be evaluated by the Department of Education on an individual basis since the list of approved teacher programs was not available until 1995 (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994).

Up until 1992, teaching certificates were guaranteed for life. However, the 1993 Education Reform Act replaced those lifetime certificates with five-year renewable certificates. Currently, re-certification for all teachers in the Commonwealth is based on completion of professional development programs and activities in an Individual Professional Development Plan (M.G.L. Chapter 71, Section 38G). In addition, the Act requires a clinical master's degree for full certification for all new prospective candidates (MTA Today, 1993).

As far as improving the current teaching force, the Education Reform Act of 1993 specifies that all teachers working in districts with a large percentage of language minority pupils are required to be trained in the issues pertinent to second language acquisition. The Act specifically mandates that principals in schools with language minority populations design professional development plans for their staff to provide all teachers with the skills to work effectively with culturally and linguistically diverse pupils (M.G.L. Chapter 71, Section 59C).

In 1998, bilingual teachers not certified were required to take a standardized state test. The Massachusetts Education Reform Act mandated a two-part testing program as part of the state's teacher certification requirements. It includes a test of communication and literacy skills as well as subject tests. Bilingual teachers would be required to take these tests in addition to the bilingual certification. The purpose of this test is to ensure that each certified teacher has the knowledge and some of the skills essential to teach in Massachusetts' public schools. The test scores from the April and July 1998 testing were generally poor (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1998).

The argument has already been made that standardized teacher tests affect the retention of teaching candidates which in turn impacts shortage (Schmidt, 1992; Weiss,

1987). Therefore, if the old requirements for certification posed a problem for attracting qualified personnel prior to 1982, the new requirements mandated in 1993 will pose an even larger problem. Once again, it will take some time before we can see the effects that will come about as a result of this policy. It will also be interesting to see what other changes will take place in the future.

Hernandez (1993) recognizes that the improvement of teacher education is integral to the improvement of our public schools. The belief that there is a direct link between the quality of teacher preparation and the efficacy of instructional programs, points towards a need to improve the ways prospective teachers are prepared. However, the need for prepared educators to teach, counsel, and work with children and adolescents whose first language is not English is urgent.

In most colleges and universities, the preparation of teachers to perform successfully in a multilingual and multicultural society represents a professional challenge. Teachers should be prepared to teach our children not only from their own culture, but from other cultures as well. They must become aware of the racial, social, linguistic, and cultural pluralism of our society and at the same time understand their pupils' anxieties, insecurities, attitudes, and prejudices. Also, there is a need for educators who are willing and able to practice in settings where there are massive shortages as well as the need for classroom teachers to develop the abilities to understand both the intellectual competence and incompetence students bring to the classroom (Hernandez, 1993; Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994).

In 1991, the Massachusetts Department of Education printed a set of competencies for teachers of students whose first language is other than English. The goal is to go beyond the understanding of one's subject area or the ability to speak one

language or another. The need for teachers to be more aware of diversity and to adapt their teaching methods, materials, and styles becomes vital.

In addition to meeting the requirements for teacher certification for a specific subject area or level, a teacher competent in the education of language minority students:

1. demonstrates knowledge of cultures in contact that can lead to cultural isolation, racial hostility, and social isolation;
2. demonstrates knowledge of instructional and curricular techniques and programmatic strategies and models which promote the social and cultural value of students from diverse cultural, racial and linguistic backgrounds;
3. applies theories and knowledge of learning processes relating to first and second language acquisition;
4. demonstrates knowledge of the history and contributions of diverse ethnic and cultural groups in the United States;
5. understands his/her own ethnic, historical and cultural identity background;
6. demonstrates knowledge of curriculum, teaching strategies and organizational models for providing dual language instructions;
7. understands similarities and differences among varieties of the language in which the candidate has demonstrated proficiency and between that language and English; demonstrates knowledge of intercultural relations and communication to create a positive classroom environment for non-native speakers of English;
8. demonstrates knowledge of the concept of cultural identity and its influence on affective development;
9. develops and modifies curriculum, and designs and implements alternative instructional strategies appropriate for multicultural education;
10. designs and uses evaluative procedures appropriate to dual language/multicultural education;
11. understands the ways in which information is communicated formally and informally in diverse communities;
12. understands human growth and development across cultures, appropriate to the level of the certificate;
13. uses strategies and methods appropriate for teaching and developing literacy in the language in which the candidate has demonstrated proficiency (p. 14).

The argument to be presented in this section reveals the fact that bilingual teachers not only receive the same training as monolingual teachers do, but they also need to receive other types of training as specified above. Earlier, it was discussed that

not only do bilingual teachers have to take the standardized teacher's test, they also have to take the examination for bilingual certification and hold a master's degree. Further, in addition to the 120 professional development points needed for regular re-certification, bilingual teachers must obtain an extra 30 points for bilingual certification. In addition, they must be fluent and demonstrate literacy in two languages (MTA Today, 1993). It is no wonder that there is such a shortage of bilingual teachers when teachers working in the regular tracks only pursue half the requirements bilingual teachers do and for the same pay.

Mainstream teachers are brought into this discussion for the following reasons: bilingual and monolingual teachers need to work together in order to properly mainstream LEP pupils; and in schools where two-way and inclusion models are implemented, bilingual and some monolingual teachers work in co-teaching settings (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1991). Despite the fact that the law requires these two groups of instructors to work cooperatively to service all students, sometimes conflicts arise amongst them. Gonzalez and Sosa (1993) claim that, in some instances, the goals of the program cannot be implemented due to resistance from teachers in the mainstream. Further, Lemberger (1992) documents that some monolingual teachers do not show or express collegial acceptance towards bilingual teachers.

Approximately half of all public school teachers in the United States have current or previous experience with limited English proficient students in their classes. In general, study findings show that there is a need to educate mainstream teachers about bilingual education philosophy and practice. Most of them don't know proper techniques to integrate linguistic minority students into their classrooms and to provide them with optimal language input. Mainstream teachers also need in-service preparation to develop

an understanding of cultural differences in behavior and learning styles. This lack of preparation creates misunderstandings between teachers and LEP students, which tends to reinforce cultural stereotypes. Further, this will impact teacher/student interactions negatively to the point where learning is impeded (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1990). This argument is also supported in the next section dedicated to bilingual education under the sub-section discussing student issues.

Prior to 1982, mainstream teachers did not have to meet any certification requisites pertinent to bilingual education philosophy and practice. After 1982, limited effort was made to correct this issue (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994). However, up until 1994, because of new re-certification requirements mandated by the Education Reform Act, a greater attempt was made to educate mainstream teachers about culture, bilingualism and second language learning (M.G.L. Chapter 71, Section 59C).

To summarize this last sub-section, the literature brings forth some concerns about bilingual instructors that will receive in-depth attention in Chapter IV. These concerns pertain to unqualified bilingual teachers and the interpersonal or collegial relationships of monolingual and bilingual teachers. These arguments also help support the idea that experiences of bilingual and monolingual instructors in the work environment differ. Other issues that will receive some attention in Chapter IV are: certification policy mandates, teacher shortage, and the number of certification requisites for candidates to become bilingual teachers.

In conclusion, there is still a lot we do not know about bilingual teachers. No literature was found to cover the following aspects about this target group: their role in the school environment; why they enter this field; their needs; their perceptions about issues affecting bilingual education today; factors that contribute to their job satisfaction;

and the problems that are currently affecting them the most. The literature did account for some aspects of bilingual teachers; for example, where they're in need of staff development; some negative job-related factors; their dissatisfaction over the profession; and how their teaching experiences differ from those of the monolingual staff. Nevertheless, Chapter VI will provide new findings not seen in the literature. In the next section, I will discuss 13 different areas of bilingual education, covering a wide range of issues. These issues help depict other realities that impact bilingual educators.

Bilingual Education

Introduction

This section provides an overview about the following areas of bilingual education: history and laws of bilingual education at the federal and Massachusetts state levels, goals, program models, program components, funding, second language learning, assessment, desegregation, students issues, parental involvement, research critiques, theories and opinions of conflict.

There are two primary goals for this section. One is to provide an overview of the most important issues that affect bilingual education today. The second goal is to provide a picture of where bilingual teachers stand in the bilingual education spectrum. According to Lemberger (1992) one important aspect about this data is that it rarely includes teacher voices.

Federal Level

Federal protection for the educational rights of language minority students is protected under Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (Ochoa & Caballero-Allen,

1988). In 1965, congress passed Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Act, which established federal support for bilingual education. Funding was used as an incentive to promote the development of educational programs for language minority pupils at individual school districts (Rotberg, 1984).

The initial involvement of the federal government in bilingual education arose in response to:

- (1) the educational problems faced by limited English-proficient pupils in the mainstream classrooms;
- (2) the increase of immigrants from Asia and Latin America which led to demographic changes in many school districts;
- (3) the changing labor market, which makes completion of formal schooling more important; and
- (4) the legacy of the Civil Rights movement. Language minority groups demanded maintenance of their native languages and cultures, in addition to having a voice in the curriculum, teaching methods, and materials used to educate their children (McGroarty, 1992; Rotberg, 1984).

Edwards (1980) noted three issues in the foundation of Title VII. First, bilingual education came about without a general agreement on a definition of bilingualism. Second, there was an assumption that this Act established an interest in bilingualism, when in fact, there existed only an illusion of national concern for bilingualism; and second language studies were considered to be in the interest of second language teachers only. The third issue is that the Act was essentially an anti-poverty measure. Bilingual education was intended to help poor people of limited English-speaking ability.

The federal legal mandate for bilingual education also rests on the 1974 Supreme Court's Lau v. Nichols decision. The Lau decision states that no person shall be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any program receiving federal funding. The court ruled that schools had to do something other than offer the same instructional materials and pedagogical techniques to bilingual pupils that were offered to monolingual English-speaking pupils (Alexander & Alexander, 1992).

Massachusetts State Law

In 1968 in Boston, a door-to-door survey was conducted by Sister Francis Georgia Vicente to determine the number school-aged children of Spanish-speaking households who were actually attending school. The results showed that 65 percent of those not attending school had never enrolled in school. The remaining 35 percent that did attend school were habitual truants. In 1969, Title VII provided funds for the first two bilingual programs in Massachusetts -- in Boston and Springfield (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994).

Two years later, in a study conducted by the Massachusetts Advocacy Center, it was found that half of Boston's 10,000 Spanish-speaking children were not attending school. Also, the graduation rate was found to be so poor that, in 1971, only one Hispanic graduated from a Boston high school. Therefore, in that year, Massachusetts enacted the first Transitional Bilingual Education Act in the nation in response to the high drop-out rates and the large number of language minority students who never enrolled in school just because they couldn't understand the language. This law was called Chapter 71A of the Massachusetts General Laws. Within a two or three year span, at least 20

other states mandated bilingual programs for their school districts (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994).

The Bilingual Education Act places an obligation upon school districts where there are 20 or more children of limited English-speaking ability to provide a full-time program of instruction. The Act recommends an early exit approach, where a child may remain in such programs for at least three years or until he/she is ready to perform in all-English classes. Further, the Act specifies that schools practice a native language instruction approach while the child is learning English (M.G.L. Chapter 71A of 1971).

In 1994, as a result of 1993 Education Reform Act of Massachusetts, the Transitional Bilingual Education Act of 1971 was reviewed. Governor William F. Weld appointed a Study Commission on Bilingual Education to study its effectiveness and implementation in the Commonwealth. The Study Commission recommended measures to strengthen the quality of bilingual education programs (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994).

Instead, Governor Weld filed a legislative bill to substantially weaken Chapter 71A. This bill proposed making the following changes: (a) eliminating the bilingual class size limits, (b) laying off most paraprofessionals, (c) allowing districts to choose structured immersion programs, (d) limiting the enrollment of language minority students into bilingual education programs only to those whose English skills are less developed than their native language skills, (e) requiring bilingual teachers to pass a test to demonstrate fluency in English, and (f) lowering the number of students enrolled in bilingual programs by placing children first in standard curriculum classes and then allowing parents to request a transfer into the bilingual program (The Massachusetts Coalition for Bilingual Education, 1995).

Almost every year, bilingual education has been threatened by government's weakening policies, reducing funding, and doing away with programs. The above mentioned legislative bill did not accomplish all that was hoped for by pro-bilingual education supporters such as The Massachusetts Coalition for Bilingual Education, parents, teachers, students, administrators and others. It did, however, allow for the implementation of structured immersion programs and changed the student-teacher ratio from 18 students to 25 students per teacher (M.G.L., Amendments to Chapter 71A, 1995). Changes in certification requirements were already discussed in the previous section. Other mandates will be discussed in the section dedicated to assessment. Immersion programs will receive more attention in the sub-section dedicated to program models.

Massachusetts is not the only state where bilingual education has undergone legislative threats. In 1988, Colorado, the state that printed its constitution in three languages, passed an amendment making English its official language. This legislation threatens the elimination of bilingual programs (Brunet, 1990). However, nowhere else in the nation has that struggle become as heated as in California. Voters from this state overwhelmingly approved Proposition 227, which largely eliminates bilingual education from the public schools (Education Week on the Web, 1998). If such proposition results promising based on student achievement, other similar legislation could be passed in other states.

Goals

One of the primary goals of bilingual education, as inscribed in Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1968 (ESEA), states that it means "to

educate limited English proficient children and youth to meet the same rigorous standards for academic performance expected of all children and youth" (Part A, Section 7105).

Another goal is to prevent language minority students from dropping out of school by providing them with meaningful instruction in their primary language until they acquire English language proficiency to perform in mainstream classrooms (Ochoa & Caballero-Allen, 1988).

Edwards (1980) and Ochoa and Caballero-Allen (1988) debate these goals put forth by the ESEA. They claim that federal and state support for bilingual education have been a means of correcting students' English language deficiencies. The rationale has been to enable language minority students to make the transition from bilingual classrooms and assimilate them quickly into mainstream education. Further, bilingual education is seen as a compensatory program rather than an approach to foster competency in two languages in order to enable students to compete in a global market.

Assimilation is generally the goal of bilingual education, pushing students into the mainstream and being imposed upon language minorities. Although this exact word is not written in any public policy, it is embedded in the goals. Assimilation, also known as the "melting pot theory," conflicts with the pluralism theory favored by most ethnic minorities (Ochoa & Caballero-Allen, 1988; Edwards, 1980). Bilingual education should promote pluralism [the maintenance of language and culture] rather than assimilation into the mainstream of society. These theories will receive more attention in the theories subsection.

The use of the native language as a means for instruction is protected under the Fourteenth Amendment of the Constitution. It is seen "as both an individual right and an essential means of accomplishing their superordinate goals, whether those be mastery of

academic material or delivery of social and mental health services" (McGroarty, 1992, p. 9). The ESEA put forth the goals for native language teaching and learning which are as follows: (a) to promote self-esteem and contribute to academic achievement; (b) to benefit native English-speaking pupils seeking to attain a second language; (c) and to develop our nation's resources, thus promoting competitiveness in the global marketplace. Research studies also support the use of the native language for teaching and learning (McGroarty, 1992; Rotberg, 1984). This argument receives more attention in the second language learning sub-section.

Program Models

The Massachusetts Department of Education (1991) recognizes the following program models under the Bilingual Education Act:

- a. Transitional Bilingual Education [TBE]: the general model addresses elements which can be found in virtually all program models, such as use of native language, and gradual transition to English. This, in effect, is the overarching model, the umbrella model.
- b. Two-Way Bilingual Program: promotes bilingualism in both monolingual English-speaking students and students whose first language is other than English.
- c. Accelerated Basic Skills Program: uses intensive multilingual curriculum and methodology to bring pre-literate or semi-literate students up to grade level for their age.
- d. Advanced Basic Skills Program: (High School) gives an example of a program targeted to older students who lack academic background, who are three to five years behind their age peers.
- e. Integrative Bilingual Education Program: incorporates strong school-wide collaboration to insure valuing the resource represented by bilingual students and integration of monolingual and bilingual students beyond the requirements of the law.
- f. Maintenance Program: provides students whose first language is other than English with continued development and enrichment in their native language throughout their school experience (p. 6).

As previously mentioned, bilingual education programs assist LEP pupils in learning academic content through instruction in their native language, while simultaneously learning English. Content instruction in English increases gradually until pupils have sufficient command of the language to be mainstreamed into all English classrooms (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994). Although there are no mandated program models and instructional approaches for teaching language minority students, it is the duty of the federal and state governments to ensure that school districts throughout the nation provide appropriate services for these pupils (Alexander & Alexander, 1992; Rotberg, 1984).

Most of these programs are implemented across the states, especially the transitional model, in combination with the English as a Second Language (ESL) program, or sometimes just ESL alone (Rotberg, 1984). However, there is a growing interest in two-way models throughout the nation. Further, it was found that program names also vary from state to state; for example, two-way models are also recognized as developmental bilingual, bilingual immersion, double immersion, interlocking, and dual language (Christian & Mahrer, 1992).

The most controversial program in existence is the immersion model. It was recently provided as an option for school districts in Massachusetts (M.G.L., Amendments to Chapter 71A, 1995). In immersion models, students embark on a systematic program of intensive language learning without depending on their native tongue. These programs are generally regarded as outstanding, such as those provided for Foreign Service Officers or by the nationally acclaimed center at Middlebury College. The rationale used by supporters of immersion education is that this model may not be

appropriate for all children, but then neither is any single pedagogical method (Ravitch, 1985).

Although there are a few studies that document the success of bilingual education, there is an abundance of studies that adequately evaluate the effects of immersion education, otherwise known as the conventional classroom program. Researchers concluded that this type of instructional approach produces a great psychological trauma in young children. Further, it produces high percentages of dropout rates as well high levels of grade retentions. Researchers do not completely dismiss the immersion approach but claim that it might be more appropriate, in some cases, for adults and for higher grade levels (Rotberg, 1984).

Earlier it was stated that Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1968 was passed in order to prevent language minority students from dropping out of school (Ochoa & Caballero-Allen, 1988). Further, the Massachusetts Bilingual Education Act of 1971 was passed in response to the high drop out rates and the large number of language minority students who never enrolled in school just because they could not understand English (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994). Therefore, these two Acts support what studies have said about the effects of immersion programs, that they are inappropriate for language minority pupils.

Other unique components of bilingual education are the early exit and late exit approaches. In early exit programs, which are most common, schools limit language minority students' enrollment in bilingual programs to three years. School officials believe that the best path to academic achievement for LEP students is to learn English and learn it quickly (Education Week on the Web, 1998). As already mentioned, Chapter 71A takes an early exit approach.

In late exit program models, students receive bilingual education services until they acquire age-norm English proficiency. According to researchers, late exit approaches are more effective since studies claim that it takes anywhere from 5 to 7 years to achieve accepted age-grade norms in second language proficiency (Cummins, 1984). However, despite what researchers say about the importance of time and second language development, school officials push for the early exit approach (Education Week on the Web, 1998). The result is that students are not completely prepared to compete in all English classes despite their preparation in a three-year bilingual program, and the regular education program is failing to accommodate them. This adds to the high percentage of dropout rates of language minority students anywhere in the nation (Mini-Digest of Education Statistics, 1995). The sub-section dedicated to second language learning also discusses early and late exit approaches.

Bilingual Program Component Applications

When creating a bilingual program in any school district, there are specific components that should be taken into account. The implementation of these components varies from project to project depending on local needs and feasibility. Variations also occur between schools in the same district, between classrooms in the same school, and between students within the same classroom (Lam, 1992). The following cost considerations should be taken into account for the proper development and implementation of such programs: teachers, paraprofessionals, materials, staff development, teaching resources, curriculum development, bilingual counselors, bilingual office staff, bilingual administrators/supervisors, bilingual counselors, bilingual

parent advisory councils, building capacity, and equitable funding (Lam, 1992; Massachusetts Department of Education, 1991).

In addition to the above key items, successful implementation of a bilingual education project requires a large degree of organizational change and mutual adaptation. Strong commitment, open communication, cooperation, support, and positive attitudes on behalf of administrators and mainstream teachers are also ingredients. The degree of program implementation varies depending on how often the project encounters obstacles and how quickly and successfully it overcomes them. A needs assessments, follow-up procedures, and program assessment are necessary for assuring program effectiveness (Lam, 1992).

Demonstrating accountability for students' academic achievement and acquisition of English is another key factor in the success of bilingual programs. A study reported by the Massachusetts Department of Education (1994) showed that most school districts were deficient with regards to accountability. Further, when evaluating the effectiveness of bilingual programs, there are issues external to schools that should be considered. The students' socio-economic status; their length of stay in this country; their learning needs; their educational background; family mobility; family structure; and their desire to assimilate or becoming bilingual can easily affect a student's education as well as a program's performance (Gomez-Navarrette, 1996; Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994; Rotberg, 1984).

Characteristics generally associated with program quality, such as time on task, clear instructional objectives, strong leadership, and well-trained teachers, clearly play an important role in student achievement and the success of the program. In addition, there are studies that reveal that some teaching techniques are clearly superior to others. All of

this suggests that there is no educational basis for selecting one instructional model for a school district or a country as large and diverse as the United States. This also implies that the assessment of bilingual education programs can be unreliable if all these variables aren't taken into account (Rotberg, 1984).

Funding

As mentioned earlier, funding for bilingual programs first came with the enactment of Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1968 of the Federal Government. This Act provided funds for creating programs in districts where 80 percent of the population was at the poverty level (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994; Rotberg, 1984). Even though states and local governments have the primary responsibility for providing funds and for setting educational policy for their public schools, federal funding is intended to increase equal educational opportunities in areas of the country with groups with special needs. Further, the federal government used such funds as a means to influence the first bilingual education programs for children with limited English proficiency (Rotberg, 1984).

According to McGroarty (1992) and Rotberg (1984), federal funding and leadership have decreased over the years. Real spending related to bilingual education has dropped by 47% in contrast to all other educational programs, which have fallen by only 8%. At the same time, the numbers of potentially eligible students for bilingual instruction continue to increase. A more conservative social agenda of the 1980s left local educational authorities with larger eligible populations and a shrinking base of federal support for servicing language minorities (McGroarty, 1992).

In Massachusetts, although bilingual programs qualify districts to receive extra state funding, school systems do not necessarily spend the designated funds on the programs for which they are allocated. In some school districts, TBE programs appear to have received less proportional funding than other programs. Such situations have been difficult to prove since funding for individual programs has not been earmarked in the accounting process at the district level. Per pupil expenditures can be extracted; however, it is difficult to make direct comparisons between districts and programs due to the inconsistency of auditing practices (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994).

In 1993, as a result of the Education Reform Act, a new funding system was developed to assure a fair and adequate minimum per pupil expenditure for public schools in the Commonwealth. This was achieved by defining a foundation budget and a standard of local funding effort applicable to every city and town (M.G.L., Chapter 70, section 1). Table 1 shows the average per pupil expenditure of bilingual programs in comparison to other programs.

Table 1

FY 1993 Average Expenditure on Bilingual Education
in Comparison to Other Programs

Program	Average Cost per pupil	Relative Percentage
Regular Day	\$4,136	1.00
Bilingual Education	\$4,663	1.13
Occupational Day	\$7,232	1.74
Special Education	\$14,838	3.58

Source: Massachusetts Department of Education, (1994)

With this foundation budget, districts continue to receive additional funding based on their limited English-proficient (LEP) pupil population. Unfortunately, increased funding does not guarantee better services (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994). The fact is that school districts are relatively free to spend their education budget as they deem appropriate (M.G.L. Chapter 70, section 8). Further, the state's Department of Education is not mandated to monitor school districts' adequacy of funding other than through desk audits (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994).

Second Language Learning

The purpose of this sub-section is to provide a rationale for second language acquisition based on data gathered from research studies. In the previous sub-sections dedicated to goals and program models, a wide range of issues related to second language learning, as well as the use of the native language as a means of instruction, were discussed.

The argument is often made that the more English instruction a student receives the sooner that student will become proficient in the second language (Lopez, 1995). However, it was previously stated that the absence of bilingual education programs has led to the high rise of language minority dropouts (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994; Ochoa & Caballero-Allen, 1988). As a result, bilingual instruction should be an integral part of the education of limited English-proficient children (Lopez, 1995).

Minority children's learning styles are influenced by their home and culture in the way they develop study habits, reading practices, and writing skills. Many parents take time to read to their children and help them with their homework. For these reasons,

many researchers support the native literacy approach when meeting the needs of language minority students. This approach also facilitates the development of the native language and easily enables children to make the transition into English (Gomez-Navarrette, 1996; Maldonado, 1994).

Another advantage to this technique is that a child's native language and culture are valued and are the main focus of instruction. This is achieved first by teaching the child to read in their first language. English is taught orally or through a whole language approach. Reading in the second language is taught after this process has been successfully acquired in the primary language. In most cases, native language reading skills can be transferred or applied to second language reading. This method of instruction is used primarily in a transitional program (Maldonado, 1994; Massachusetts Department of Education, 1991).

Other major findings suggest that providing limited English proficient students with substantial amounts of native language instruction does not interfere with or delay the acquisition of the second language. On the contrary, children who receive instruction in the first language acquire higher levels of proficiency in the second language than children who are not exposed to native language development (Lopez, 1995). Further, research findings suggests that bilingual students can develop literacy in two languages simultaneously within an integrated dual language instruction program or an integrated bilingual program (Maldonado, 1994).

It is important to understand the differences between two levels of language proficiency when bilingual students are making the transition into the mainstream classroom. These are the Basic Interpersonal Communications Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). Children who may be proficient in

the BICS in English may not necessarily be proficient in CALP in English (Cummins, 1984).

Studies suggest that school personnel have often administered language proficiency tests to language minority students and assumed the students attained full proficiency in English on the basis of BICS. This level of proficiency, which takes two years of development, involves the ability to use complex conversation using contextual cues and social context for meaning. Although a student may sound like a native speaker of the language, this capability is limited to the use of BICS only (Cummins, 1984). As a result, students are transferred out of bilingual programs before they can achieve a level of comfort to perform in all English classes (Education Week on the Web, 1998). This, in combination with the lack of support from unprepared mainstream teachers, leads to the high dropout and low literacy scales (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1990; Mini-Digest of Education Statistics, 1995).

CALP requires language in context-reduced and high-cognitive skill levels, which can be observed within a social cognitive context. This level of proficiency takes from five to seven years to achieve accepted age-grade norms in reduced context components of English proficiency (Cummins, 1984). This is the rationale used for most late exit models. Unfortunately, policies mandate early exit models as mentioned earlier (Education Week on the Web, 1998).

In addition, the last aspect of the bilingual development process is the notion of interlanguage or code switching. Ten years of code switching research shows that both users and non-users of this linguistic form do not allow its acceptability. Although code-switching happens naturally in the scheme of bilinguality, one must assume that it serves important functions for the language learner/user. However, this natural language

function is in direct conflict with normative or conventional forms and attitudes about what is proper language; therefore, it is not appreciated nor supported. People go to great lengths to discourage its use and to eradicate it. Because we do not understand the role that code switching or interlanguage plays in natural language development and usage, and because we have little control over it, we tend to see it as an aberration. First and second language purists think alike when they say that the use of the first and second language simultaneously will either keep them both from growing to their full potential, debase them, or cause confusion in the speaker's mind (Duran, 1994).

Assessment

When dealing with limited English proficient students, every assessment is an assessment of language. As a result, aptitude can be seriously underestimated if the test taker is not proficient in English. Therefore, the assessment of language minority pupils has been a topic of great debate (Glenn, 1997). Studies show that districts across the state of Massachusetts have been very deficient on this aspect. The state office responsible for assessment of bilingual students never developed a method of assessing such students (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994).

There are two different approaches for measuring for academic results. One argues that there should be set standards, and a valid and reliable assessment process, as well as consequences for negative test results either for the students, teachers, administrators, their school, or the school system. Critics of this approach say that it is unreasonable since language-minority students are expected to perform as well as monolingual English speaking students on assessments conducted in English only. Others

argue that a better approach for assessing LEP students is to compare their performance to their own previous achievement or their predicted achievement (Glenn, 1997).

The federal government and a number of states are advocating a move toward common standards in curriculum and assessment. These standards in curriculum and assessments are to include English language learners. This has been reflected in the Goals 2000 and the Title VII Re-authorization (Glenn, 1997). In Massachusetts, as a result of the Education Reform Act of 1993, the state developed the Curriculum Frameworks, which were not mandatory for school systems to adopt; however, it was recommended that the districts should align their curriculum to the state's frameworks (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994).

As part of a standardized curriculum, the state also developed a standardized test, otherwise known as the Massachusetts Comprehensive Assessment System (MCAS). The guidelines established for LEP pupils are as follows: all children who have been living in the United States for three consecutive years will take the MCAS in English; students who have not been living in the United States for three consecutive years will take the test in Spanish (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1998). This presents a problem since this test does not account for every language group. These guidelines also have negative implications for children who may not have the proficiency to be tested in English at the end of the three years.

In addition to setting the standardized curriculum and assessment, the Act mandated that there be consequences for teachers, administrators, schools, and school districts not performing in accordance to those standards. If a school is determined to be under-performing, superintendents were given the right to replace teachers and

administrators. In the event that the school system was under-performing, the Board of Education would then take control of that district (MTA Today, 1993).

Desegregation

In the 1973 Supreme Court's decision of Keyes v. School District No.1, Denver, it was mandated that Hispanic students also have a right to desegregation remedies. Earlier studies showed that, while the segregation of blacks had declined significantly, the segregation of Hispanics and LEP students had been increasing (Wells, 1989). Evidence of the effects of segregation and isolation suggests that they contribute to gaps in educational attainment as well as increasing dropout rates (Rotberg, 1984; Wells, 1989).

Bilingual education programs may in fact have become another segregated track for language minority students. Many students have been assigned to classes based on their home language or ethnic background rather than on the proficiency in English (Rotberg, 1984). Further, students are usually enrolled in remedial classes and/or placed in low-level curricular programs where they rarely learn sufficient English and from which they may never emerge. Teacher expectations for them are considerably low and they are also not encouraged to go on to college (Education Week on the Web, 1998; Wells, 1989).

Studies claim that language minorities participate in segregation as an attempt to protect the integrity of bilingual programs. This has been the result of past negative experiences in the schools. These negative experiences referred to included patterns of discrimination and harassment against language-minority children; children receiving little or no help in the conventional school programs; punishing students for speaking in

their native language; and assigning them to classes for the mentally retarded (Rotberg, 1984).

One proven remedy for desegregation has been the creation of alternative bilingual program models. Unlike the transitional model where students are placed in a self-contained classroom, two-way and inclusion models are geared to integrate monolingual English speakers and LEP children in one room. While studies show that bilingual students have great academic and language growth in these types of programs (Maldonado, 1994), monolingual English parents are more likely to place their children into these types of programs since they can also develop a second language (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1991).

Student Issues

Throughout this country, states are facing dramatic increases in the number of pupils unable to perform regular class work in English (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994). The number of language minority children increased by 38% during the '90s to 6.3 million. The states with a high concentration of second language minorities are California, Florida, Texas, New York, Arizona, and New Mexico (Walsh, 1994). By the year 2020, the minority population of the United States is projected to grow by 32% (Weiss, 1987).

In Massachusetts, the presence of a rapidly increasing number of recent immigrants (especially Hispanics & Asians) whose first language is not English has required new educational policies and programs to adapt to this demographic shift. In 1993, there were 105,902 language minority pupils in the Commonwealth, making up 12% of the total public school population of which 5% could not do regular class work in

English. For this pupil population, there are currently 51 school districts, (out of a total of 315) which provide transitional bilingual programs. The sixteen largest language groups serviced in bilingual education are as follows: Armenian, Cape Verdean, Chinese, Greek, Haitian, Hebrew, Gujarati, Japanese, Khmer, Korean, Lao, Polish, Portuguese, Russian, Spanish, and Vietnamese (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994).

Within the LEP population, there are highly variable characteristics. In Massachusetts, Spanish-speaking pupils represent the highest percentage of the total bilingual student body. Even though the majority of the Hispanic students come from Puerto Rico, many also come from Central and South America, the Dominican Republic, and Cuba. Studies show that the cultural differences and language variations of these students should be taken into account during instruction (Lam, 1992; Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994).

Language minority students may differ from the mainstream student population in ethnicity, country of origin, native language, length of residence in the United States, English language proficiency, and socio-economic status (Lam, 1992). Factors that affect the academic learning and English acquisition of LEP pupils are family mobility, family structure, prior school experience, the desire to assimilate, and the desire to become bilingual (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994; Rotberg, 1984).

Although the reasons for family mobility vary widely, they have a strong impact on pupils' educational adjustment. Poverty and political turmoil in the students' countries of origin have resulted in their migrating to the states and into our public schools. Some language minority students' parents are here for professional reasons, with no intention of migrating permanently, and leave after a short period. Puerto Rican families engage in a

pattern of circular migration and often travel back and forth from the island (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994).

In regard to family structure, a disproportionate number of language minority students live in single-parent homes or with a family member other than their mother or father. There are also refugees sent out of their countries by their parents here as unaccompanied minors, supporting themselves and living with peers (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994).

Another issue affecting language minority students, particularly in their early years of education, is that many start school without the proper tools needed to succeed. These children have a language delay caused by a lack of educationally oriented experiences. This results from some parents being too busy trying to provide for their families' physical needs, while others may not realize the importance of developing the native language at home through active interaction with their children. In addition, many LEP students have never attended day care or preschool or have never been exposed to other surroundings (Gomez-Navarrette, 1996).

Other major problems affecting the Hispanic population are high dropout rates and low literacy scales. LEP students are included in those statistics. Nationally, the dropout rate for Hispanics remains relatively high at 30 percent, compared to 8 percent for whites and 13 percent for blacks. The average literacy scores for Hispanics are below that of blacks, which are below that of whites (Mini-Digest of Education Statistics, 1995).

In Massachusetts, Hispanic children are three and a half times more likely to drop out of school (see Table 2) than the average pupil (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994). These problems faced by LEP students are in part the result of the lack of preparation that the mainstream teachers have (Massachusetts Department of

Education, 1990) when working with these pupils and because of policies shaping bilingual programs (Education Week on the Web, 1988).

Table 2

Unadjusted Dropout Rates: 1987-1993

Race/Ethnic Group	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993
African American	10.6%	10.6%	9.2%	9.2%	9.1%	7.4%	8.0%
Asian	6.3%	4.8%	4.7%	5.1%	3.9%	4.2%	3.2%
Hispanic	15.2%	14.2%	14.1%	12.6%	11.1%	11.1%	11.3%
Native American	9.3%	11.8%	7.8%	8.0%	7.2%	4.8%	9.9%
White, non-Hispanic	4.4%	4.5%	4.0%	3.6%	3.0%	3.1%	3.2%
State Average	5.3%	5.4%	4.9%	4.6%	4.0%	4.0%	4.3%

Source: Massachusetts Department of Education, (1994)

Parental Involvement

There is a need to build communication links between schools and homes of language minority families (Hernandez, 1994). Parental involvement is essential to reinforce children's native language development and to communicate high expectations about academic achievement. However, research dialogues and questionnaires indicate that a significant number of families are unclear about the extent to which they should be involved in their children's education (Gomez-Navarrette, 1996). One reason is because there are cultural variations in what constitutes appropriate parental involvement from both the parents and the school. Most Spanish-speaking parents feel they fulfill their duties at school by making sure their children go to school clean, appropriately dressed, and with a proper attitude. Participation in parent councils and other committees may fall

outside the realm of the parental role in Latin America and, perhaps, in other parts of the world (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994).

There are also social factors that influence parents' understanding or interpretation of school involvement. Studies have identified community characteristics that contribute to the low academic and social achievement of families. These characteristics are a high mobility rate, a low socioeconomic level, a large number of nontraditional and single parent families, and a high incidence of crime and drug use in the community (Gomez-Navarrette, 1996).

Misunderstandings from both the family and the school also affect parental involvement. On one hand, some teachers interpret parents' lack of attendance at meetings as not caring about the children's education. On the other hand, parents who don't speak English think they are purposely being excluded or ignored by school personnel and English-speaking parents. Further, some parents are kept from becoming involved because they work long hours and don't have the time or energy to participate in their child's education (Gomez-Navarrette, 1996; Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994).

Many parents choose not to participate in their children's education for a number of reasons. While many parents feel they don't belong in a school because of personal educational experiences as a child, others lack familiarity with North American school customs. If parents have very little formal schooling and don't speak English, they may either feel embarrassed or question the role they play in their children's education. This also contributes to the fact that some won't debate school personnel on any aspect of their child's education because they may feel that the teachers are the professionals and know what is best for their child. Last, some parents believe the only time they hear from the

school is when their children are in trouble (Gomez-Navarrette, 1996; Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994).

In some instances, school personnel will add to the negative feelings parents have about the educational system. These people lack sensitivity, preparation, and awareness of family traditions and language as well as children's life realities. Further, many schools fail to equip themselves with personnel (secretaries, paraprofessionals, administrators and counselors) who represent students from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds. They don't realize that these are the people who can help bridge the gap that exists between the family and the school (Gomez-Navarrette, 1996; Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994).

Families need to be educated about making decisions related to the children's education. Under the M.G.L. Chapter 71A, "any parent whose child has been enrolled in a TBE program shall have the absolute right . . . to withdraw the child from said program" (section 3). There have been many cases where parents refuse bilingual education services for their children without considering the recommendations from school personnel or just because they lack knowledge of how a second language is acquired. Sometimes what they think is the right step for the education of their children may be a very detrimental one (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994).

This Bilingual Education Act attempts to increase parental involvement through the creation and maintenance of Bilingual Parent Advisory Councils; by mandating that parents be informed and involved in the decision to enroll or withdraw their children from TBE programs; and by sending the child's progress report in the native language of the child. However, data on parental involvement show that some districts have violated the law specifications. Another common problem was the lack of support personnel to

communicate with parents in their native language (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994).

Research Critiques, Theories and Opinions

In this last sub-section, issues found in research critiques, theories, media, and other topics are discussed. These areas are considered forces that shape, drive, and impact bilingual education. They sometimes have a direct or indirect impact on schools and school systems. Some of the arguments discussed here have already received attention in previous sub-sections.

Rotberg (1984) and Ochoa and Caballero-Allen (1988) critique research studies that have been conducted to measure the effectiveness of bilingual education programs. One example is the Air Evaluation Report of 1977, in which results were very critical of bilingual education and received national attention. In this study, the ambiguities in research design, outcome measures, and the results did not support generalizations gathered from the research. This study was found to be biased in the research design and in the fact that important background information was omitted.

Two other federally funded research reports, the Kanter and Baker Report of 1981, and the Twentieth Century Task Force Report of 1983, were also critical of the effectiveness and quality of bilingual programs. However, the Kanter and Baker Report was criticized for utilizing educational research for political and economic expediency. The report had extremely poor and biased research approaches to a review of literature. The Twentieth Century Task Force Report also received national attention in that only negative results were published in the media discarding the positive aspects of bilingual education (Ochoa & Caballero-Allen, 1988).

Despite the fact that researchers have pointed out the conceptual and methodological shortcomings in these three reports, bilingual education policy was still influenced by them. As a result, school districts were encouraged to implement immersion programs. In 1987, a Congressional report charged the U.S. Department of Education with the misuse of research data from these reports to conclude that there is little value in native language instruction. The Department, in turn, reported that they had misinterpreted the research which resulted in the downplay of the value of teaching in languages other than English (Ochoa & Caballero-Allen, 1998). These events suggest that the federal government is inconsistent in its support for bilingual education and that they lack proper judgment in funding and publishing poorly designed and implemented studies (Ochoa & Caballero-Allen, 1998; Rotberg, 1984).

Two theories of controversy usually surface when discussing bilingual education: the assimilation and/or melting pot theory versus the multiculturalism and/or pluralism theory. Advocates for the assimilation and/or melting pot theories opine that bilingual education does a disservice to minority children. Those writing in favor of pluralism claim bilingual education promotes maintenance of the native language and culture. It depicts the melting pot as an evil metaphor and considers the elimination of diversity to be deeply anti-democratic. Others believe that pluralism serves to diminish minorities' loyalty as United States citizens and that it undermines the unity of the nation (Bradley & Eurich, 1982; Edwards, 1980).

A movement has been established upon the assumption of a major value shift in America, from assimilation to pluralism. Although this may seem to be a questionable assumption, there exists greater tolerance towards ethnic groups, but this cannot be equated with favorable dispositions towards pluralism. In fact, the current opposition to

bilingual education can be seen as an attempt to force this distinction upon those who have been unwilling to recognize it (Bradley & Eurich, 1982; Edwards, 1980). These theories were previously discussed in the goals and program models sub-sections.

Much of the criticism surrounding bilingual education can be found in the popular media. Printed public opinion has more of an impact on bilingual education than research studies (Edwards, 1980). The mass media has also used the above-mentioned research reports to present the image that bilingual education is un-American, dangerous, and ineffective. Newspapers purposely print inconclusive negative research findings and exclude positive results (Ochoa & Caballero-Allen, 1988). In addition, opponents of bilingual education, such as the proponents of the English Only movement, often use the popular media to provide negative publicity (McGroarty, 1992). Further, the media influences the public's view on laws such as proposition 227, which eliminated the implementation of bilingual programs in California (Jacobson, 1999).

There are currently two groups advocating for or opposing bilingual education. They consist of those advocating for the English-only movement and the English-Plus coalition. Their debate is intensified by strongly held value positions and tensions that frequently have little to do with curricular or pedagogical questions regarding optimal educational programs for language minority students. These value positions include, on one side, the need to learn English and assimilate and, on the other, the need to value other languages and cultures. Their positions are sometimes realized by putting pressure on politicians and educational agencies (McGroarty, 1992).

Since the 1980s, the English-only movement is behind the legislation now passed in 17 states to make English the official state language through constitutional amendments or special statutes. Some of these laws may be perceived as ceremonial in

intent. However, others laws, such as California's Proposition 227, are actively intended to outlaw bilingual education programs. This movement not only represents the official stance of some elected representative in the government body of the United States but also a coalition of private lobbying groups with a strong nativist strain. Two major lobbying groups have developed, English First and U.S. English. Both are dedicated to preserve English against the perceived threat of pluralism (Education Week on the Web, 1998; McGroarty, 1992; National Education Association, 1988).

In 1988, the English Plus coalition was founded to promote the freedom to use any language and the value of learning and using languages in addition to English. Members consist of the National Immigration, Refugee, and Citizenship Forum and the Joint National Committee of Languages. Many other organizations have allied themselves to the English Plus coalition, suggesting a growing acceptance of the potential benefits of bilingual services for language minority children (American Psychological Association, 1990; McGroarty, 1992).

Finally, the last argument reveals that the worlds of foreign language instruction and bilingual education have always been quite separate. The participation of all kinds of students [language minority as well as monolingual English-speaking] in bilingual programs is a way of the future. Foreign language instruction and bilingual education can come together for the improvement of this nation's educational systems by correcting the incompetence in foreign languages that American citizens demonstrate. As a result, this nation's security would be restored and its competitiveness in the global market would be promoted (Bradley & Eurich, 1982).

Summary and Conclusions

The first section of the literature review covered many aspects of bilingual teachers but at the same time left many unanswered questions. This literature review was able to cite very few studies that focused on bilingual teachers. Those that did cover aspects of the target subject were primarily centered on the issues of shortage and demand (Boe, 1990; Gonzalez & Sosa, 1993; Schmidt, 1992) as well as certification and training (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994). Other studies mentioned were focused on teachers of the mainstream (1998-1999 Occupational Outlook Handbook, 1998; Meier, 1989). Further, the entire second part of the literature review documented a tremendous number of issues that did not incorporate the perspectives of bilingual teachers.

Another argument regarding the available studies is that the statements made concerning bilingual teachers did not provide many supporting details. The researchers identified an issue, but sometimes excluded the why and how. In addition, specifics on research design were not provided.

In looking at job related factors (i.e., isolation, lack of support, and heavy workloads) affecting both monolingual and bilingual teachers, it was mentioned that these factors have a different and perhaps bigger impact on bilingual teachers than they do on regular teachers. In addition, these data supported the contention that there are differences in the work experiences of both groups of teachers. However, those differences were identified by making comparisons of the data available and not because any particular study made these distinctions. Thus, it is still unknown whether teachers would validate these differences in their job experiences. The data collection methods

section of Chapter III discusses in detail how the differences between bilingual and monolingual teachers were researched for this dissertation.

In the sub-section dedicated to work environment issues, studies suggested that some mainstream educators resisted the implementation of bilingual programs and refused to accept bilingual teachers as colleagues (Gonzalez & Sosa, 1993; Lemberger, 1992). The studies failed to specify why these problems occur and how bilingual teachers deal with them. In addition, it was suggested that administrators do not provide much support in the implementation of the program. No answers were given as to the reasons behind this and how it impacts bilingual educators.

Sosa and Gonzalez (1993) claimed that bilingual teachers' workload is greater than average and that this was also one of the reasons why some of them resign from or transfer out of bilingual programs. The main factor that increases this work overload was dual language instruction, but details on how workload is actually increased were not provided. Further, Lam (1992) made the statement that there is a lack of commercially prepared materials for bilingual programs. Sosa and Gonzalez (1993) supported that statement and added that it is also one of the reasons why teachers discontinue working in the program. However, there were no indications on how the lack of resources affects their day to day work.

In Massachusetts, both bilingual and monolingual teachers have been accused of being in need of training on bilingual education philosophy and methodology (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994). The data failed to provide what teachers think about the certification requirements and also what their training needs are. Last, it was documented that bilingual teachers feel isolated. The reason given was that there is a small number of bilingual teachers in school buildings, which makes them feel

isolated and causes them to resign or transfer out of the program (Sosa & Gonzalez, 1993). Once again, there are too few supporting details to justify this statement.

The literature review reveals that little is known about many aspects of bilingual teaching. For example, we don't know why some bilingual teachers like their job and stay; what is the role they play in their schools; what are the problems currently affecting them the most; what are their perspectives on some of the issues affecting bilingual education today; and what are their needs.

In the sub-section on research critiques, Rotberg (1984) and Ochoa and Caballero-Allen (1988) discussed flaws in the design of some studies evaluating bilingual education programs. One of the major flaws was that the exclusion of important background information had an effect on the generalizations made about bilingual education. This is why the section dedicated to bilingual education issues plays an important role in this dissertation. It provides the background information necessary for analyzing the data and for supporting the research findings. In addition, it sets the stage for acquiring a better understanding of bilingual teacher welfare by placing the subject group in the bilingual education spectrum.

In the sub-section on program components, Lam (1992) addressed the argument that there will be differences in degree of bilingual program implementation within states, districts, schools, and classrooms. The level of program implementation will impact the perspectives and experiences of students, teachers, administrators, and others. While every attempt is made to represent a broad range of people, this dissertation does not represent every person's perspectives and experiences in the target setting. This is yet another reason why background information is important to consider. It will compliment all of the ideas and themes that emerge in the findings.

Lam's (1992) above-mentioned argument also accounts for part of the reason for incorporating former bilingual teachers into the study's research framework. The degree of implementation of a bilingual program will sometimes result in the creation of internal factors that have an affect on the teachers and cause them to discontinue their work in the program. These factors are said to vary depending on the setting. This was validated when comparing the internal factors mentioned by the director of the bilingual program from the target setting with the factors mentioned by the researchers.

The sampling section of Chapter III discusses further the rationale for including former bilingual teachers in the research framework of this dissertation. Attention will also be brought to this dissertation's design and research methods as well as the rationale for its development. It further explains other significant components of this study, such as the setting, limitations, validity and trustworthiness.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

Overall Approach and Rationale

A social science qualitative study is the best method for this dissertation research. This approach is based on phenomenological in-depth interviewing as a single method for data collection. According to Holstein and Gubrium (1994), phenomenology focuses on the essence of lived experience. This form of research focuses in-depth on the meaning of a particular aspect of an experience. It is therefore assumed that, through dialogue and reflection, the quintessential meaning of the experience will be revealed. Language is also viewed as the primary symbolic system through which meaning is both constructed and conveyed.

The rationale for use of this qualitative approach is that, through means of this exploratory study, the interest group [bilingual teachers] will be regarded as one who knows the profession holistically; therefore, a deeper understanding of the participants' experiences will be acquired. This means that to understand bilingual teacher welfare it is best to understand it from their point of view (Lemberger, 1992). The interviewees' stories will be descriptive, detailed, and meaningful and will enlighten others about a phenomenon of interest (Eisner, 1998).

As previously mentioned, this study utilizes in-depth interviews as a single method for data collection. Therefore, acquiring the participants' subjective view is one of the main goals of this study. Marshall and Rossman (1989) describe in-depth interviews as an interaction between the interviewer and the interviewee to gain valid and reliable data. Attention is given to the perceptions and experiences of the participants.

Their beliefs, feelings, and thoughts are treated as significant realities (Locke, Spirduso, & Silverman, 1993).

The interview process is conducted as a conversation with a purpose where there may be clarifying questions, the recounting of stories, and the re-enactment of events (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). The interviewer may also propose some topics or themes to guide the participants and to help uncover their meaning and perspective. The interviewees' perspectives on the given topics should not be influenced by the researchers' opinions or knowledge of the subject. Further, the researcher respects all of the participants' responses (Marshall & Rossman, 1989).

This approach was selected personally because of how I would like to view myself as a researcher. According to Denzin and Lincoln (1994), the qualitative researcher is concerned about the individual's point of view and can get closer to his/her perspectives by means of in-depth interviewing. The researcher is not searching for a "verifiable and absolute 'truth' that functions in a cause and effect model of reality. The working assumption is that people make sense out of their experiences and in doing so create their own reality" (Locke, Spirduso, & Silverman, 1993, p. 99).

This research method seeks a valid understanding of bilingual teacher welfare by exploring the participants' experiences and perspectives on work related topics. This type of study, however, could not have been done experimentally or through means of other approaches for practical reasons (Marshall & Rossman, 1995). According to Patton (1990), participation, observation, and document analysis are the other three kinds of data collection techniques used in qualitative research. These approaches were inappropriate for this study because they cannot provide the complete details that the participants' own words can.

The Setting

The data gathered for this dissertation reflect the perspectives of bilingual teachers in the Westpoint School System [pseudonym]. This is an urban district located in the western part of Massachusetts. Statistics show that the poverty level there is estimated at 87% of the total student population. This is determined by the total count of reduced lunches. The district educates around 26,600 pupils, of whom 40% are Hispanic, 30% are Black, 28% are White, and 2% are Asian (Gomez, 1998).

There are currently 29 schools, out of approximately 46, with implemented bilingual programs from grades K-12. Program models include the transitional model, ESL, two-way, and inclusion. They are implemented at the elementary, middle, and high school levels. Languages of instruction consist of Spanish, Russian, and Vietnamese (Gomez, 1998). Bilingual programs have existed at Westpoint since 1969 (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994).

There were 3,200 bilingual pupils enrolled during the 1998-1999 school year. Bilingual pupils comprised 12% of the total student population and their ethnicity consisted of Asians (2%), Hispanics (95%) and white Russian (3%). Servicing these pupils required a total of 200 full time equivalent bilingual teachers [not including paraprofessionals and counselors] and 44 ESL teachers (Gomez, 1998).

Data Collection Methods

The data-gathering method used in this qualitative research was phenomenological in-depth interviewing. "Phenomenology is the study of experiences and the ways in which we put them together to develop a world view" (Marshall & Rossman, 1995, p. 82). Interviews typically operate along a continuum of being highly structured to totally

unstructured. Patton (1990) mentions three types of open-ended interviews that fall along this continuum: "(1) the informal conversational interview, (2) the general interview guide approach, and (3) the standardized open-ended interview" (p. 280). This study followed a combination of guide approach and standardized open-ended interview.

I chose to use interviews for several reasons. It is the most practical and comprehensive means for collecting data (Marshall & Rossman, 1995), and it provides a means for seeing "how people make sense of their lives, experiences and their structures of their world" (Cresswell, 1994, p. 145). This method is also flexible enough to allow for the introduction of the personal perceptions of the respondent. Further, interviews allow the data collection process to proceed in a natural tone (Marshall & Rossman, 1995). Finally, interviewing is an effective approach when there is a conspicuous lack of theory and previous research (Cresswell, 1994).

The purpose of this study was to uncover the participants' perspectives on specific topics. Therefore, their subjective view is what mattered. Typically in this process, "the researcher explores a few general topics to help uncover the participant's meaning perspectives, but otherwise respects how the participant frames and structures the responses" (Marshall & Rossman, 1995, p. 80). My role was to listen, accept their thoughts as presented, and ask clarifying questions where needed. In qualitative research, it is expected that the interviewees' perspectives on the proposed questions or topics will unfold as they see it, not as I see it. Thus, my job was also not to judge what they were saying.

The interview process assumes four goals. One is to gather large amounts of data. The second is to gather a wide variety of information across a number of subjects. Further, the interviews will allow me to see the meaning people put into their experiences

either during its process, or after, when transcribing and reading it over. Also, interviews will capture, in their own words, what the participants have to say about the topic (Marshall & Rossman, 1995). Using Seidman's (1991) guiding principles for in-depth interviewing -- exploring participants' backgrounds relative to the setting and phenomenon, exploring each one's detailed experiences with bilingual education, and asking each to reflect on that experience -- insight was gained into each person's experiences and perspectives on the topics given.

The following was the initial process for data gathering:

1. The process for selection of participants was based on the recommendation of administrators, colleagues, and friends.
2. Participants were asked in a letter for their voluntary participation in a study (see Appendixes A & B).
3. A verbal consent was also obtained, either over the telephone or in person, and a date was set for an initial meeting. Pre-meetings were set to discuss the following:
 - a. The purpose of the study, interview process, my role as researcher, and the interviewees' rights were described in detail.
 - b. Participants were asked to read the consent forms and sign two copies (see Appendixes C & D). We both kept a signed copy of the consent forms. Consent form "C" was for teachers currently working in bilingual programs. Consent form "D" was for former bilingual teachers.
 - c. Each group was given a set of guide questions to lead them through the interview (see Appendixes E & F).
 - d. Also, a date, time, and place were set for the interview.

- e. The interviewees were asked to select pseudonyms for the purpose of confidentiality and to use the pseudonym to identify themselves during the interview process.

The purpose for providing the guide questions prior to the interview was to allow the participants time to reflect on past experiences and recollect their opinions or thoughts about the specified topics. The participants were asked to read the questions prior to commencing the meeting in case clarification was needed. Interviews were conducted individually. However, all former bilingual teachers were interviewed first and all teachers currently working in bilingual programs were interviewed at a later time. The approach allowed for better focus of each group during the interview process.

At the beginning of the interview, the participant spoke his/her pseudonym into the tape recorder. The date, place, and time were also recorded. The actual interview was initiated at this point and each lasted approximately 90 minutes. The interviews were later transcribed by me and kept in two separate folders: one for former bilingual teachers, and the other for teachers working in the bilingual program. Copies of the transcripts and/or tape recording were given to the participants. In addition, the participants were asked to review their transcript and whether they wanted to delete or add to any portion of their interview. They not only agree to leave the interview as is but also they offered to provide more information in the future if needed.

The guide questions were developed by me and, throughout the interview process, the questions were continuously assessed to determine which ones needed to be re-formulated. The interview guide questions were developed based upon themes and topics related to the immediate work environment. This, in turn, facilitated the analysis of the data.

In order to gather data that shows the difference in work aspects of bilingual and monolingual teachers, the interview guide questions specifically asked the participants in this study to continuously compare themselves to educators in other programs as they answered the questions. Therefore, the interviewees had two tasks in the interview process: to talk about some aspects of their job and to compare their work to other professionals in other educational programs. The interview process encouraged some of the participants to be more willing to share their perspectives and experiences about the given topics.

Sampling

After deciding on a data-gathering method that would best suit this study, the question of who should participate needed to be answered. Patton (1990) refers to intensity sampling as a means to gather data from place and people "that manifest the phenomenon of interest intensely . . . Using the logic of intensity sampling, one seeks excellent or rich examples of the phenomenon of interest, but not unusual cases" (p. 171).

The determination of how many participants should be in a study is an important decision as well. Seidman (1991) states that two criteria for selection should be considered. First, a researcher must consider a sufficient number of participants to reflect the general population so that others outside the study can relate to the experiences of the participants. The participants in this study represent the general population of bilingual teachers. There are certainly aspects of this profession that can be related to by members of the general population, but the participants do not represent the general population. Second, a researcher must consider the saturation of information or the point where information becomes repetitive.

In choosing the number of participants in my study, I tried to balance Seidman's (1991) criteria with the resources available to me, as well as the time constraint. Because I am a student researcher with limited resources, I designed my study to be manageable. I also needed to consider the time necessary to do my own transcriptions because this was an important part of my data analysis. In order to find the participants necessary for the data collection, Glesne and Peshkin's "'snowball' or 'network' techniques" (p. 27) were most helpful. Therefore, the candidates for this study were selected upon the recommendations of administrators, colleagues, and friends.

In this study, there are two groups of interest. One is made up of bilingual teachers actively working in a bilingual program. The second group consists of former bilingual teachers. These are people who resigned from teaching or went to work in other areas of education. There are eight participants in each group, totaling sixteen participants for this study. The one commonality shared by these teachers is that they all have or have had experience teaching in a bilingual program.

Even though the primary emphasis of this dissertation falls on teachers currently working in bilingual programs, there is a reason for having chosen two distinct groups of teachers for this study. By utilizing two perspectives, the themes selected in the data analysis have more validity and strength. What we come to know as bilingual teacher welfare has more breadth and depth if former teachers are also testifying to those facts. In addition, differences between the two groups are also revealed in the data analysis.

Former bilingual teachers, however, were chosen for this study because there is a high attrition rate in bilingual programs (Boe, 1990; Schmidt, 1992). According to Gonzalez and Sosa (1993) and Weiss (1987), the problem of attrition is in part the result of both internal and external factors. This leads to the implication that there may be

dissatisfaction in the profession. Therefore, this study seeks to investigate more deeply into the factors that caused former bilingual teachers to discontinue working in bilingual programs. Former bilingual teachers will also help provide an understanding of the potential problems facing a school district.

According to Lam (1992), there are differences in the degree of implementation of bilingual programs in states, districts, schools, and classrooms. In a sense, this is saying (amongst other things) that there may be poorly structured bilingual programs. Poorly implemented programs are the result of the lack of specific component applications as mentioned in the literature review. Such programs will sometimes create internal factors that add to the problem of attrition (Gonzalez & Sosa, 1993; Weiss, 1987). Therefore, depending on the bilingual program being studied, the factors that cause attrition will differ from place to place. As a result, another reason for incorporating former bilingual teachers into this study was to determine what are the factors from a specific setting that caused them to discontinue working in the bilingual program.

The findings in this study will show that the reasons why teachers from the target setting discontinue working in bilingual programs differ from reasons given as accounting for attrition in other studies. This statement was in part supported earlier by the program director from the target setting when comparing both data. As a result, the findings could either validate what the other researchers have found and/or provide new insights. Knowing why some teachers stay and why some leave will have implications for proper implementation of bilingual programs.

Out of the eight former bilingual teacher participants, four have left the teaching profession and four had transferred out of the program and went on to teach in other areas

of education. The perspectives of former bilingual teachers who have transferred out of the program also have strong implications in the research data because they can make valid comparisons between different programs. Asian, Hispanic, and Caucasian participants comprised this group. Also, former bilingual teachers were equally divided between elementary and secondary programs.

The second group, consisting of teachers currently working in bilingual program, is also very diverse. As previously mentioned in the setting section, the target district has Spanish, Russian, and Vietnamese bilingual programs. Therefore, an attempt was made to have two participants working in each of the language groups. The Spanish bilingual program was the only area that had educators who were either Hispanic or Caucasian. The attempt was made to include two teachers from each ethnic group. This diversity also has strong implications for the research findings. The representation from the elementary and secondary grades is also equal. Other differences among all of the participants is their age, gender, educational background, years of experience, and the different grade levels taught.

(A profile of each participant was incorporated into this dissertation. To know more about each participant turn to Appendix G.)

Data Management and Analysis

In qualitative research, data management and analysis is more than a procedure for compiling the results of the investigation. Rather, it is an ongoing process of searching for meaning amongst available data, revising, and searching for new or additional available meaning (Taylor & Bogdan, 1984). According to Marshall and Rossman (1995), "it is a messy, ambiguous, time-consuming, and fascinating process" (p.

11). There are five modes of analytic procedure, which were followed closely in this study: organizing data; generating categories, themes, and patterns; testing the emergent hypothesis; searching for alternative explanations of the data; and writing the report. Each mode involves data reduction (in order to make data manageable) and interpretation.

In the first mode of analytic procedure, data management, a successful method that was used in the pilot study was also used in this part of the dissertation. As previously mentioned in the section dedicated to sampling, the fact that I transcribed the interviews played a major role in this dissertation. While transcribing, I kept a journal, in which I recorded themes and ideas that emerged from the interviews as well as my thoughts, comments, questions, and rationales about those themes and ideas. Once the transcriptions were completed, they were kept in two separate piles identified as active teachers and former teachers. Both groups of participants were color-coded: red for active teachers and purple for former teachers. This method allowed for visual access to the data, faster processing, and a more efficient sense of organization for writing the findings. Color coding the groups also facilitated the interpretation of the data.

The second mode, generating categories, is "the most difficult, complex, ambiguous, creative and fun" task according to Marshall and Rossman (1995, p. 114). It is also the most challenging phase and the one that can integrate the entire endeavor. In addition, it demands increased awareness, focused attention, and openness. Through questioning, reflection, and noting regularities, the researcher formulates the main themes from the data. According to Patton (1990), the researcher may depend on inductive analysis to formulate categories that will emerge from the data. In inductive analysis, the researcher may use "indigenous typologies" (categories created and expressed by the

participants and generated through analysis of the local use of language) or "analyst-constructed typologies" (categories created by the researcher). For this study, both were utilized.

A categorization system was also created with the intent to record issues, perspectives, themes, ideas, and/or data that are similar across the experiences of the participants. These categories were based upon the literature and research studies available, but primarily upon the new themes found in the interviews. This method also allowed for the comparison of observed patterns in order to strengthen or eliminate either pattern (Patton, 1990).

The interview questions were developed based upon themes and topics related to the immediate work environment. This facilitated the process for selecting themes, ideas, and categories. The journal kept during the transcriptions was also used during this mode of analytic process. The research questions were written on poster board paper. Categories, themes, and ideas were also written on the poster paper (under the research questions) so as to create columns.

Once these categories had been formulated, they were tested through the data. This third mode is known as testing the emergent hypothesis. This was accomplished by extracting citations from the transcriptions that identify a particular theme and/or idea. Those were cut and pasted under that theme or idea. This process was done for every interview in order to determine which categories were supported by most or all of the participants.

In the fourth mode, searching for alternative explanations, the researcher challenges these ideas, themes and categories. According to Marshall and Rossman (1995), "alternative explanations always exist" (p. 116). However, it is the responsibility

of the researcher to search, identify and describe them. Further, an explanation as to why a particular theme is plausible should be provided. This was achieved through searching for explanations of the categories in the literature review. Also, the categories were compared to determine whether there was a connection between them.

The last mode is the report. According to Taylor and Bogdan (1984), there are five different approaches to writing the final report or the research findings: (a) describing the history, (b) presenting the data gathered through in-depth interview and participant observation, (c) relating practice to theory, (d) addressing sociological theory about institutionalization and the symbolic management of conditions in institutions, and (e) building theory by drawing on data gathered from several types of institutions and under various research conditions. The approach selected for this study, obviously, was the presentation of data gathered through in-depth interview.

Limitations of the Study

The limitations of the research in general were addressed in Chapter I. Specifically, they centered on the experiences I have had as a student researcher and the need to use those experiences as a point of reference for writing the findings. Hence, other aspects of bilingual teachers were not included in this study. However, something must be said for the parameters put around this study to give the reader a coherent picture of the district and the stories of the participants in the study.

Although initially there were broad questions and curiosities driving this study, a decision was made to view this through the lives of each of the participants. This focused attention and effort on their experiences and perspectives and narrowed the topic to a more focused inquiry. What results from this decision is a snapshot of the participants'

lives as part of a whole population--bilingual educators. In addition, this study does not tell any one or every one's story in-depth.

The researcher recognizes that this dissertation does not give the complete picture and that questions are still in need of answers. What do bilingual teachers consider good instructional practices? What is the role of bilingual teachers with the student population and parents? What do they consider a well-structured program? And what do they see in the future for bilingual education? Other limitations may be due to the degree of program implementation within school districts and states (Lam, 1992). The target setting may differentiate greatly from other school districts in terms of language groups, program component applications, district needs, program policies, and others.

Validity and Trustworthiness

The goal of any qualitative research is to seek out truth and report it as objectively as possible; however, complete objectivity is not entirely possible. Because some of the methodologies require gaining an understanding of the phenomenon through the eyes of others, the reality of the situation will be colored by the individual's perceptions of that reality (Eisner, 1998). As pointed out in Chapter I, the subjectivity of the researcher plays a role in this perception. Again, the willingness to be sensitized to these issues goes a long way in letting the audience know that every possible attempt was made to ensure that the data presented are valid and the analysis trustworthy.

To ensure that careful attention was paid to the issues of validity and trustworthiness, two considerations were given to the work: time for collecting data, and comprehensiveness in the write-up of the data and findings (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992; Patton, 1990). The data recording methods used in this study--audio-tape recordings of

interviews and my own interview log--were the ones that captured the details necessary to write a complete description and analysis of Westpoint's bilingual teachers. The time allotted to test misinformation either from the researcher or respondents also played a very important role. Further, listening to tapes before the transcriptions, listening and noting the compelling parts, transcribing the data, and noting highlights was a significant investment of time. It was also a process to become familiar with the data and decide what was relevant.

The analytic procedure used in the data management and analysis also supports the validity and trustworthiness of the research. The process allows for testing the emergent hypothesis and searching for alternative explanations to the findings (Marshall & Rossman, 1995). In addition, Strauss and Corbin (1990) suggest that anchoring data from the study in other published research also validates the data and ensures trustworthiness in the findings. Wherever possible, correlations are made between the data from this study and the research presented in Chapter II.

Credibility in research demonstrates "that the inquiry was conducted in such a manner as to ensure that the subject was accurately identified and described" (Marshall & Rossman, 1989, p.145). In this study, each participant had access to his or her interview. They were encouraged to review the information and also were given the opportunity to add to, change, or omit parts from the interview.

Summary and Overview of Chapter IV

With consideration for the limits of the study and the methods to ensure validity of the findings, Chapter IV will present the descriptions of teachers about their work experiences and perspectives pertinent to other factors through interview data. The voices of the participants, as captured through the interviews, give life to the case. The data corroborate the essence of the phenomenon and the themes that emerged from it.

CHAPTER IV

THEMATIC CONTEXT DERIVED FROM THE DATA

Introduction

The themes found in this chapter are the participants' experiences and perceptions of their profession and their work environment. This chapter is divided into 11 thematic sections. The headings or topics were extracted from the interview guide questions. They are as follows: bilingual education philosophy and training, bilingual program implementation, job components, perceptions of the profession, student issues, support staff, external factors, primary needs, reasons that bilingual teachers enter and stay in the field, reasons that bilingual teachers exit the program, and differences between the subject groups.

Under each heading, a thorough discussion of the emerging categories, themes and ideas from the interviews are developed. These will be supported with selected quotations from the participants that express vividly their true and honest opinions. Further, the discussion will entail supportive evidence from the literature review.

This study documents the following general findings about bilingual teachers of Westpoint School District:

1. Most people who pursue a career in bilingual education are native speakers of the language in which they perform instruction and have previous teaching experience in their native land.
2. The political battle over bilingual education affects all bilingual teachers. Political threats to bilingual education are causing some teaching candidates

holding positions to leave the program. Former bilingual teachers desire job security.

3. Bilingual teachers' workload is greater than the average for teachers in the regular track because of the lack of resources, the absence of support personnel, dual language teaching, student related issues, the absence of academic support programs for students, the implemented program model, and having to implement the goals of the program.
4. The bilingual teacher's role entails performing the duties of support personnel as well as the implementation of the bilingual program goals and student academic support programs.
5. The participants perceive that there is a lack of professional equality between bilingual teachers and other educators. They also perceive that in general bilingual education is poorly valued.
6. The participants perceive at times that there is segregation and isolation of bilingual personnel because of racial, language, and cultural issues.
7. Bilingual teachers need training in second language acquisition. Training in bilingual education philosophy and practice is essential prior to entering the workforce. Their primary needs are instructional resources, support, and assistance in program implementation.

Under each emerging theme, a discussion of the similarities and differences between former and active bilingual teachers will be provided. The differences between bilingual and monolingual teachers will be described in detail in the job components section.

Former bilingual teachers' pseudonyms are Juan, Maria, Ximar, Pedro, Delia, James, Barbara, and CC. Pseudonyms for teachers currently working in bilingual programs are T, Thu, Valerie, Ana, Javier, Jane Doe, Sarah, and Petronila.

Bilingual Education Philosophy and Training

During the interview, the participants were asked to tell what their philosophy of bilingual education is. They were also asked to say what they think is the perception of monolingual teachers and their principal regarding bilingual education. The emerging themes in this section are inclusive of both former and active bilingual teachers.

In Chapter II, under the sections dedicated to goals and program models, the philosophy of bilingual education is discussed. The findings showed that the participants have an understanding of this philosophy. In order to determine the participants' understanding of what bilingual education is, the data were analyzed using the process described in Chapter III under the data management and analysis section.

Themes about the philosophy of bilingual education were extracted from the subsections of the literature mentioned above. These are as follows: to learn academics through the native language, to learn English, to be mainstreamed, maintenance of the native language and culture, and the early and late exit approach to learning the second language. These were written as column headings on poster board paper. Every time a participant made reference to any of the themes or keywords, that quotation was extracted and placed under it.

The majority of the participants responded that one of the goals of bilingual education is to continue to learn academics through native language instruction.

According to Javier, "[the student] enters the bilingual program where he is educated in the language he knows best while he is learning English." Also, Barbara said:

My understanding is that because someone has a language barrier, it's no reason for them not to be learning. And so the idea is that they continue to learn. And we also tried to foster additional language, the English language. But these are capable kids and a lot of the skills kids are learning are transferable once you master the second language.

The interviews also revealed that, during this process, the children are learning English until they gain proficiency. According to Javier, "for me it is important that the student, even as he is receiving his education in the native language, he begins to familiarize himself with some English concepts, because that helps and facilitates the transition into the second language." Also Sarah said:

The transitional bilingual program, from what I read, the first year, it's supposed to be three quarters of the day in Spanish and one quarter in English . . . The second year, it's supposed to be half-and-half. The third year should be three quarters in English and one quarter in Spanish. But by the fourth year . . . they are ready to be mainstreamed or almost ready.

After achieving proficiency, the participants said that the students are ready to be mainstreamed. Pedro said that "I think the philosophy of the bilingual program is to . . . mainstream the students in the regular education program. So that they also . . . can compete with the English speaking students." In addition Delia expressed that "I think the purpose of the bilingual program in the United States should be to prepare kids to go into the mainstream."

In the sub-section of the literature review dedicated to program models, it was stated that supporters of the theory of pluralism believe that one of the goals of bilingual education is to help maintain the native language and culture. The interviews revealed that the participants agreed with this goal. Ana said, "my philosophy of bilingual

education is . . . for children to have the opportunity to learn in their native language . . . [so] they can be proud of their heritage and culture." Further, Sarah stated that "I believe that [the students] should maintain their language and . . . culture."

Early and late exit program models are also part of the philosophy of bilingual education. The effects of early exit models were discussed in the sub-sections of the literature review under program models, second language learning, and student issues. The majority of the participants felt that one of the goals of bilingual education is for early exit. Juan said, "[the goal is] to give support to the student so that the student in two or three years can be mainstreamed." Also, Ximar said, "I knew that the goals of the program were really to try and mainstream these kids as soon as possible."

Most of the respondents of this theme were former bilingual teachers and some active bilingual teachers. This supports the claim that some teachers are lacking training in second language learning since research indicates that the acquisition of second language is best accomplished in a late exit program model. This issue is also supported in the certification sub-section of the literature review, where it was stated that candidates hired might not be sufficiently knowledgeable about the learning needs and strengths of bilingual pupils. Those who did receive second language learning training and support late exit programs are at odds with the goals put forth by politicians and other administrators. In addition, it can be speculated that politicians are at odds with colleges and universities in this aspect of training.

According to Valerie, "all studies show that five to seven years is the approximate time [for learning a second language]. For some it might take less, for some even more."

Also, Sarah said:

I can understand 3 years, but through things that I've learned in school, did you hear about BICS and CALP? . . . They don't master

a language [in 3 years], it take them 5 to 7 years before they are just mastering the basic part of the language not the academics . . . [I believe this] because of my experience in learning a second language.

Also, Jane Doe said:

There is the basic . . . chitchat conversational English. But then, there is the academic cognitive language, which is what you need to be successful in school. And just because students can . . . converse and make their needs and wants . . . made known . . . that doesn't mean that they can work at a very high cognitive level in the second language.

The participants were also asked what they thought was the monolingual teachers' perception regarding bilingual education philosophy. In the work environment issues sub-section of the literature review, Sosa and Gonzalez (1993) stated that bilingual teachers sometimes experience resistance from other teachers when implementing the goals of the program. Although this finding was not supported in this study, there were other emerging themes found in the interviews.

The majority of the respondents felt that some monolingual teachers do not understand or support bilingual education. According to Barbara, "I think people interpret the goals and the philosophy differently and I don't think the mainstream teachers necessarily were aware or understood what they were." Also, T said, "some teachers say that . . . [bilingual education] doesn't work because the kids depend too much on the Vietnamese teacher. So they cannot improve or they cannot develop [English] proficiency. I don't think they know about the philosophy." Further, Sarah said:

Some of what I find is that some of the older teachers tend to say things like, "there shouldn't be bilingual programs. They're in America. You should speak English only." And that their grandparents came over before; they didn't have bilingual programs and they are doing just fine.

Another perception the participants had of the monolingual teachers is that they think LEP students should be placed in immersion programs. Petronila said that "most people have a negative idea about [bilingual education] . . . They don't believe in it . . . They think the kids should go directly into the regular program and be totally immersed." Also, Ana said, "some teachers, they're against the program. They think that everybody should be mainstreamed as soon as possible. That there is no need for Russian-speaking children to learn Russian."

Monolingual teachers perceive, according to the interviews, that bilingual teachers should be teaching in English and disregard native language instruction. Ximar said, "[regular teachers] think that the philosophy of bilingual programs should be for the teachers to teach English." In addition, Jane Doe said, "many teachers believe, 'well, if you give them more English, they would acquire English faster,' which is not the case and that's due to a lot of ignorance."

As far as the school principal is concerned, most of the respondents believed that the principals aren't aware of the philosophy of the program. A few mentioned that principals urge early exit of the program. Valerie said, "[the principal] thinks that the main idea about bilingual education . . . [is that the kids] need to be in this program as less as possible and move to the mainstream; and they can sink or swim." Also, Petronila said, "[our] principal never took the time to ask what the whole program was all about."

Base on evidence shown above, the participants felt that mainstream staff lacked training on bilingual education. As a result, former and active bilingual teachers took it upon themselves to educate others about it. The issue of monolingual teachers lacking training in this area was supported in the certification sub-section of the literature review.

Petronila said, "I am willing to refer whatever my knowledge is about bilingual education and my experiences per se." Also, Barbara said:

I thought that was my responsibility, to explain that as best as I could whenever I could . . . Towards the end, I was getting a little tired of it. I thought that at some point people were going to catch on to this.

In addition, Ana said:

Yeah, I do as much as I can, you know, I share my opinion about bilingual education. I share my point of view with other teachers. But anyway, some people have different opinions and sometimes you can't convince a person, but sometimes you can.

The interviews revealed that majority of the participants did not receive training when they first started working in the district. T said, "12 years ago, I didn't get any training" Also, Petronila said, "when I started, there was no training whatsoever. But I learned as I went along." In addition, Ximar said, "what they did was give you a pamphlet that comes from the state in terms of the different models in bilingual education."

The participants claimed that they had to seek training on their own at a college or university. This finding was predominantly supported by active bilingual teachers. According to T, "most of my training is from the university not from the central office." Also, Delia said, "I couldn't understand whole bunch of things until I went back to study . . . and one of my concentrations was bilingual education."

As discussed in the sub-section dedicated to certification in the literature review, the Education Reform Act of 1993 mandated re-certification requirements for every teachers through means of courses and workshops. The target setting soon established a mandatory staff development program for all Westpoint staff. As a result, teachers began to receive mandatory training in bilingual education just five years ago. Petronila said,

"well, after professional development started, they had workshops for people." Also, Javier said, "the professional development program of this . . . [district] is very good; but nothing is perfect, it has its areas in need of improvement."

The last finding is that the participants felt there is a need for training in bilingual education for all staff, bilingual and monolingual, in every school. According to Valerie:

We . . . should be the first educators for them. But I think the school department should provide more training starting from the principals and then for the rest of the staff. And not just the teachers--the kitchen, the custodians. Everybody should be educated.

Also, Sarah said:

There was . . . [a workshop] about like diversity. There were other . . . [workshops] about supporting bilingual students making the transition . . . [Monolingual teachers] had that option to choose. They also had the option not to choose. And I think they choose what they feel is important to them.

There were also some other issues brought up in the interviews but not classified as findings since they were not supported by a majority of the participants. These are as follows: there is a lack of value over bilingualism; monolingual teachers urge early exit of the program; participants perceive mainstream staff has low standards for LEP students; and the interviewees felt that there is a need for national and state support for bilingual education.

Bilingual Program Implementation

The participants were asked to discuss how they perceive the implementation of the bilingual program in their building. When selecting the emerging themes in this section, Lam's (1992) rationale about there being differences in the degree of bilingual program implementation from setting to setting was highly considered. This argument

was brought up under the sub-section dedicated to program component applications in Chapter II. The findings in this section are supported by both groups of interviewees.

There is, however, another characteristic of the participants that strengthens the themes in this section. The majority of the participants worked in more than one school with implemented bilingual programs. Through the interview process, they were able to recall experiences from other school buildings and make comparisons. Therefore, their insights add more breadth and depth to this research.

The first emerging theme encountered was that the participants perceived a lack of supervision of the program. The respondents felt that school principals are not ensuring that program goals are implemented. According to Javier, "there has to be constant supervision. Our program needs more structure and above all, consistency. That consistency will come from supervision and the follow-up procedure." Also, Ximar said, "what the program needed was supervision . . . as a process of help . . . When you leave a group of people on their own, they try to do their best." In addition, Jane Doe said, "I think . . . [the principal] had more of a knowledge of what goes on . . . in the regular education program than the bilingual program because she doesn't speak Spanish."

Sosa and Gonzalez (1993) claimed that bilingual teachers experience conflict with the building principal when there is disagreement on how to best serve LEP students. Their study also states that bilingual teachers need direct assistance from the principal when they are experiencing resistance from the mainstream staff when implementing the program. These findings did not emerge in this study. However, it was found that the respondents felt that school principals leave the responsibility of implementing the goals of the bilingual program to bilingual teachers.

Petronila expressed that, "if I want to mainstream five kids, all I have to do is . . . make sure I give them the test [and] have my principal sign [the paper work]. She doesn't question anything." Also, Ximar stated, "the bilingual program worked alone. The principal relied on the department chairperson . . . That person was the one who organized the schedule and everything." Further, T said, "[the principal] said that both teachers from both levels, they have the right to enhance the program because both have . . . two different programs. One is TBE and one is inclusion."

The participants were asked to interpret the meaning they made out of having the responsibility of the implementing the program. Most of the respondents perceived that it came down to professionalism and respect. Ana said, "I would say she's trusting us, the bilingual staff, and she is aware . . . [of] what we are doing. You know, she treats us as professionals." Also, Jane Doe stated, "I think it's respect; it's respect for your professionalism and authority." There was, however, a minority of respondents who felt that it was neglect on the part of the administration.

Another question asked was how much support do the participants perceive the bilingual program receives from the building principal in comparison to other programs in the school. The majority of the respondents claimed that the bilingual program receives less support in comparison to other programs in their schools. Also, while there were few that said that support was equal, others felt that it depended on the administrator.

Ximar stated, "[the principals express] indifference. They have the program . . . because they are required to have it." Also Petronila said, "they have other programs in the school and there is 100% support for these programs . . . The bilingual program has been around for a long time and has no support from the administration whatsoever." In

addition Ana said, "of course the monolingual program has more emphasis because of the test."

Support was perceived to be inequitable because the participants lacked resources and materials. According to Jane Doe, "some principals are more apt or are more willing to buy materials for bilingual teachers and provide the necessary resources than [other principals]." Ximar expressed that, "I didn't see any effort from the site-base management team or the principal to make a . . . total needs assessment of for example: materials and where the kids are." Materials and resources are further discussed in the section dedicated to job components.

In the funding sub-section of the literature, the decrease or misuse of funds for bilingual education was addressed. The interviews showed that there was lack of support as a result of funding not being equitable. Javier stated that, "I spent 10 years in a school where funding was approved for other programs except for the bilingual program." Also Ximar expressed that, "the bilingual teachers had to go and fight with the site-base management team for them to assign money to update our books because for 10 years they didn't buy anything for the bilingual program." Further, James claims that "some programs need more funds than others . . . Russian teachers, Vietnamese teachers, [for them] sometimes it's difficult . . . to find Russian literature, Vietnamese literature."

In TBE program models, the interviews revealed that some bilingual teachers don't do any instruction in English. Therefore, students are not getting enough English exposure to acquire this second language. English instruction is commonly left to the ESL teacher. According to Delia, "it was my understanding that that was what I was supposed to do. I had to teach in Spanish." Also, Ximar said, "I observed that that was

not a practice in the other classrooms because it is easier for you and comfortable for teachers to teach in your own language."

Over the concern of bilingual teachers not teaching in English, the interviewees expressed the need for teachers to practice more English instruction. Sarah expressed, "I'm not saying that the bilingual teachers need to speak English all day, but some part of the day." Also, Jane Doe said, "[the principal's] expectations would be that a bilingual teacher would contribute and teach in English to help prepare the kids." In addition, Ximar stated, "I started in Spanish and gradually, I made the transition to teach . . . [the students] in English."

Another emerging theme is that most of the participants expressed that there is an increasing acceptance for inclusion and two-way programs. These models allow for the integration of all children and give them opportunity to become bilingual and bi-cultural. According to Jane Doe, "dual language or two-way programs are much more acceptable [than TBE models] . . . It has more of a chance of surviving because . . . the Anglo population . . . will buy into it and participate. It's not just a program for minorities." Also, Sarah said:

[In the integrated classrooms] I see such growth in all of the students, in my students learning English [and] the other students learning Spanish . . . But you don't see as much in that when they are in self-contained classrooms and being pulled out one hour a day for ESL.

Even though there is an increasing acceptance for inclusion and two-way models, the participants felt that TBE programs are also needed. They claim that LEP students just arriving from a foreign country could be better served in TBE programs. Inclusion and two-way programs are recommended for students who were born here or who have

lived here for few years. T said, "TBE is better than inclusion with the big kids . . . who come here with little or no English background." Also, Jane Doe said:

You can't get rid of the transitional program because . . . you're going to have kids that don't fit. They're going to come in 4th grade with no English, so they have to be in a program that will support them in the native language while they acquire skills in English.

Participants further expressed that schools should not implement more than one program model per school. It should be either TBE, inclusion, or two-way. The intent would be to keep consistency and organization when implementing the program goals.

According Jane Doe:

You don't have to have . . . [two program models] in the same school but you can organize your school district in a way that you can have . . . [an] X number of dual language schools in a zone and X number of schools with transitional programs.

Finally, the participants were asked to say how they perceived the status of the bilingual program in their school in comparison to other programs. The responses were all negative. According to Valerie, "I think most of the people think that bilingual education is some how less than monolingual education . . . that they are not at the same level." Also, Valerie said, "in a way, it's special education or even less than special education." Other reference words to describe the program during the interviews were as follows: a dust pan, it lacks credibility, the black sheep, ugly duckling, lacking legitimacy, isolated, and not important.

There were also other issues brought up under this section that were not classified as findings since they were not supported by the majority of the interviewees. These are as follows: participants who lacked second language learning training perceived LEP students who stayed in the program for more than three years were abusing the program; the status of the bilingual program affects students; in some schools the bilingual

program is isolated or segregated classrooms are placed in the hallways, basement, and small rooms; some teachers don't mainstream students in order to save their jobs; more than one program model in a school creates conflicts amongst bilingual teachers; and TBE program goals are not properly implemented in some schools.

Job Components

The first question of the interview focused on this thematic section. The purpose was to initiate the interview process with a discussion where the participants would have common knowledge of the given topics. The interviewees were also given the option to decline a discussion on any particular subject and/or add others to the interview. In addition, the participants were asked to say if they perceived that those topics impact them differently from the way they would impact monolingual teachers.

There were many findings supported by both groups of interviewees. In this section, many of the differences between bilingual and monolingual teachers come to light. The participants chose to discuss most of the topics listed and didn't bring forth new ones.

The first topic discussed was workload. According to Sosa and Gonzalez (1993), bilingual teachers' preparation and workload is greater than the average for teachers in the regular track. In this study, it was found that bilingual program teachers do have a greater than average workload and preparation. In addition to having to teach in two languages, there are other factors and issues that contribute to this work overload. Some of the findings are specific to the elementary or the upper grades.

Unlike teachers in the regular track, the participants at the elementary and upper levels felt that their workload is increased because they have to teach in two languages.

In the sections dedicated to the perceptions of the profession and program implementation, the concerns that there are some teachers working in bilingual programs who don't have English proficiency or who may not instruct in English were addressed. However, all of the participants in this study stated that they do practice instruction in both languages. Dual language instruction impacts the workload because, according to the interviews, it's a method of instruction that actually takes more time to perform. Also, it requires more preparation since the act of doing research is sometimes necessary for doing translations.

According to Jane Doe "there are areas . . . [where] I have to do research for the vocabulary in science and learn it in Spanish . . . If the language you're teaching is not your first language, it's extra work." Also, Ana said:

Whenever I'm saying something in English I have to translate it into Russian because I have, you know, a few kids in the classroom who are brand new and don't understand English . . . Of course it is more work because it takes more time.

Workload is also increased because in the absence of support staff, bilingual teachers in all grade levels generally fulfill those additional duties. This theme is thoroughly discussed in the section dedicated to support staff. Another factor that increases the workload of bilingual teachers is the absence of special service programs for LEP students, such as bilingual special education, learning centers, Chapter I, and others. In some schools, bilingual teachers have to provide these services in addition to the regular instruction. These two findings are also descriptive of how the work of teachers in the regular track differs from that of instructors in bilingual programs.

Jane Doe stated that "bilingual students do not have access to . . . Chapter I and remedial services . . . in their native language. They [also] need to have some kind of

early intervention program to develop Spanish literacy for kids who are at risk." In addition, Valerie said:

Of course we have the same responsibilities the monolingual teachers have . . . But on top of that, we have some different responsibilities that pertain just to bilingual students and to the bilingual program. And it's really overwhelming because you need to follow the regular curriculum and adjust the curriculum to the . . . [bilingual special education students]. So you have a whole mixture of kids and you don't have anybody to serve them in a proper way, I mean, in special education or learning center.

Another factor that impacts the workload of bilingual teachers, unlike monolingual teachers, is the lack of resources. This theme is more specific for teachers at the elementary level. Materials and resources were also discussed in the implementation and primary needs sections.

In the absence or lack of resources, bilingual teachers take it upon themselves to create the materials necessary for instruction. According to CC, "as a [former] bilingual teacher, I find that the workload was much more because the resources were not available. So I had to create my own." Also, Barbara said, "making up the materials or translating the science lesson into Spanish, making up Spanish dittoes to go with it or whatever, that was additional [work] that another teacher would not have to do."

Further, Jane Doe stated:

The workload . . . seems to be greater because of the lack of resources. We just don't have as many materials as the monolingual teachers, particularly in the area of language arts . . . Social studies is problematic because there isn't . . . resources in Spanish . . . that match up with the Massachusetts curriculum frameworks.

The participants also claimed that creating materials to go with the instruction is both time consuming and hard work. CC said that her experience was that "I would get up at five o'clock in the morning or go to bed at 1 o'clock in the morning [creating

materials]. I was always under stress. It was like a nightmare." Also, Thu said, "when I translate a book . . . it just takes a lot of time to edit . . . [If] I put all the hours together, it's probably like two days." Further, Valerie said, "if a regular teacher needs to prepare for work for an hour or two hours, we need five, six, seven, up to ten hours."

The workload of middle and high school bilingual teachers is also greater than the average for teachers in the regular track because of the number of preparations. The district hires one bilingual teacher per subject area in the upper grades. The number of teachers per school is relatively low. All subjects required for students to graduate are divided amongst the available staff. As a result, bilingual teachers end up having to teach three or four subjects. If a teacher's area of expertise is in science, he/she is required to teach all the science courses. This is to say that he/she is teaching biology I, biology II, chemistry I, chemistry II. The same applies for teachers in other subject areas.

Ximar states that "in terms of workload, I had 3 grades. My workload was bigger than the other regular teachers because the other regular teachers . . . taught one class to one grade." According to Javier, he claims that:

Contrary to how it was done before, where a teacher whose area of expertise was science also had courses in history . . . and language arts . . . [Now] what we have tried to do within the last few years . . . [is] to give the bilingual teacher at the junior and high schools more courses within their area of expertise . . . so they can feel more comfortable and so that they know they're going to be more effective.

Also, Petronila said:

When we started the program, . . . [there were] two teachers teaching all the high school courses required for graduation . . . [Now] basically we have 5 teachers . . . and [if] we divide the 23 or 24 courses that we offer the kids, we have to go with that load.

There are some factors that influence the implementation of bilingual programs at the middle and high school levels. These are the TBE program model, the school of

choice project, and the desegregation law. This in turn influences the workload teachers have.

For any middle and high school teacher, having to teach more than two subjects is against their contract (SEA, 1995). Attempts have been made to reduce bilingual teachers' workload. However, it has been difficult to come up with a solution because of the factors influencing the implementation of bilingual programs and the low pupil enrollment. All bilingual teachers accept these working conditions voluntarily. According to Petronila, "our workload is a lot heavier than other regular class teachers because most of us have different preparations. Some of us even have six different preparations and by contract we're supposed to have only two."

The participants at the elementary and upper levels claim that administrators and other educators argue that because LEP pupil enrollment is low in bilingual programs, the workload of bilingual teachers becomes equal to that of monolingual teachers. However, the interviewees felt that their workload is still greater than the average of monolingual teachers. James says, "they think that because . . . [bilingual teachers] have a smaller enrollment [of students], we have less academic preparation." In addition, Valerie claims that "in our school we don't have too many kids. But because we have responsibilities on top of our regular job, they think we are equal with monolingual teachers."

As far as the curriculum is concerned, the participants reported that the district established learning outcomes for all subject areas. Both monolingual and bilingual teachers have the same learning outcomes and also, they are encouraged to use the Massachusetts curriculum frameworks. Standardized curriculum is discussed in the assessment part of the literature review. Jane Doe stated that, "[our curriculum] is the

frameworks and the learning outcomes. We have the same exact curriculum as everyone else. Our vehicle of instruction is Spanish, that's all."

Multicultural education was another topic of discussion and the participants expressed that they not only practice it in their instruction, they see multicultural education as being very valuable. It is used to enhance students' self esteem, to promote pluralism, and act as instructional incentive amongst other things. Multicultural education wasn't discussed in the literature review. However, the reasons why the participants practice it in the classroom are similar to the goals for using the native language for instruction. This is supported in the sub-section of the literature review dedicated to goals of the program.

According to Valerie, "we try to give our kids self-esteem based on multi-cultural education." Ana said, "we don't celebrate Christmas in Russia but we have different holidays [that we do celebrate]. During Russian as a foreign language, I concentrate more on Russian culture and customs." Also, Petronila said, "by using multicultural literature, it seems like . . . [the students] kind of relate to it and they don't see it as a chore."

Another theme was in relevance to the topic of co-teaching. Most of the participants, especially at the elementary level, have co-taught. Unlike the monolingual teachers, many bilingual educators in some schools aren't given the choice to work in a self-contained classroom. As a result, they have to work in an inclusion or two-way setting. The respondents nevertheless were in favor of co-teaching given that it is a compatible team. Jane Doe expressed that, "co-teaching, I've found that it has been a valuable experience and . . . I would not want to go into the classroom by myself . . . [However,] there has to be a matching personality." According to Ana:

If those two people have a good relationship and know how to work together . . . it's very helpful. It helps both teachers and it's beneficial for the children . . . You can assist each other and you can help each other and you can do a lot of things in the classroom . . . I rather work in a co-teaching model classroom.

Standardized assessment was yet another topic discussed. The MCAS was touched upon in the literature review under assessment. According to the state regulations, language minority students will take this test in English if they lived in the United States for three consecutive years. The respondents were opposed to this regulation and felt that bilingual students should take the test only when they have proficiency in English. Ana said, "I think that's the way children [should have been] . . . tested a long time ago in the United States . . . [But] to be able to take the MCAS, children should be able to be very proficient in English." In addition, Jane Doe said:

The fact that the education reform demands bilingual students to take the MCAS in English . . . with only three years of bilingual education, I don't think that's fair . . . [This] is a difficult test for the monolingual English speakers any ways and for second language learners it's brutal.

The participants also brought up other issues that affect bilingual programs as a result of assessment but there was only a small amount of evidence in support of them. These issues are that assessment urges early exit of LEP students and that schools express disregard over the test scores of language minority students. In addition, some respondents were also in favor of what the test measures.

The last topics discussed were materials and resources. These were considered in the previous section. The majority of the participants felt that not only do they lack resources for instruction, there are very few resources and materials available in the market. This is even more problematic for the Vietnamese and Russian bilingual

programs. Lam (1992) and Sosa and Gonzalez (1993) support this finding in the subsection of the literature review related to work environment issues.

As evidence, T said that, "we don't have any materials for the Vietnamese bilingual students." Also, Valerie said, "there is no way to find materials because [the] Russian population is so small, we don't see a lot of business making materials for us." In addition, Jane Doe stated that, "if the market is not there, the companies will not publish [materials] . . . particularly in the state of California which is dropping bilingual education and promoting . . . English only."

Previously, it was stated that the lack of resources impacts the workload of bilingual teachers at the elementary level, since many teachers create their own materials necessary for instruction. In addition, many of the respondents stated that they purchase some of their own materials and resources because the district does not make them available to them. Sarah said, "it's hard to find Spanish materials around here . . . [so] I bought a lot when I went to Puerto Rico." Also, Ximar stated that, "we had very old books [and] no materials at all. I had to buy my own materials."

Further, the interviews revealed other problems found regarding the existence or lack of resources. However, they were not classified as findings since not all participants supported them. These concerns are as follows: some literature books do not reflect the culture of the students; the lack of commercially prepared materials has an impact on the students; some subject areas lack more resources than others; the lack of resources in some schools forces teachers to share; some of the resources available to teachers are old; and there is a lack of businesses willing to invest in educational materials for language minorities. In addition, there were a small number of respondents that claim that there

has been an increase in availability of resources and materials for bilingual programs in the last few years.

Perceptions of the Profession

In the second guide question of the interview, the participants were invited to talk about their professional or interpersonal relationship with other bilingual teachers, monolingual teachers, and the principal. The emerging themes were supported by participants in both groups. Literature supporting these findings can be found under the following sub-headings: desegregation, work environment issues, certification, goals, federal level, and program models.

The participants were asked to describe their work relationship with their principal. The main outcome was that the majority felt that they both had good professional relationships. According to Sarah, "I find . . . [our principal] very supportive all of [us] . . . He speaks very highly of all the bilingual staff." Also, Ximar said, "[the principal] was very professional. She listened to me and...encouraged me . . . She was always receptive to my ideas."

Lemberger's (1992) study claims that monolingual teachers at times do not express collegial acceptance towards bilingual teachers. In this study, the emerging theme is that most participants perceived that the bilingual teaching profession is viewed by other educators as not being equal, as far as status is concerned, to that of a monolingual teacher. According to Javier "this has to do first . . . [of all because] bilingual education has never been accepted legitimately within the school district." In addition, Petronila said:

It seems that we are viewed as less than the rest . . . All of us actually have master's degrees . . . just like the regular classroom

teachers. [Also], I have heard so many comments [like] . . . 'oh, he can't speak English, how come he . . . [is] teaching this? How come he's a teacher?'

Also, Jane Doe said:

My Anglo colleagues . . . tend to be more critical of bilingual teachers who speak with an accent . . . [But] why should a bilingual teachers who has a Spanish accent or a Russian accent or a Vietnamese accent be seen as less intelligent or be looked down upon as not being proficient in English?

There are many other factors that shape this perception of the profession. Some other participants provided the following reasons: (a) English is not the primary vehicle of instruction, (b) monolingual educators perceive bilingual teachers as not doing any real teaching, (c) regular track teachers think that bilingual teachers have less responsibility because bilingual pupils test scores aren't regarded in the schools, (d) and bilingual teachers sometimes feel they are treated as paraprofessionals or tutors.

In the literature review sub-section dedicated to certification, it was stated that some bilingual teachers who were not sufficiently knowledgeable about the needs and strengths of bilingual pupils were allowed to enter the workforce. This resulted from changes in certification requirements in addition to the shortage and demand of qualified personnel (Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994). However, in this study, the participants felt that there are some teachers working in bilingual programs who don't have proficiency in English. It can be speculated that the changes in certification requirements triggered by the teacher shortage and demand may have also resulted in the hiring of staff who are not fully bilingual.

According to Sarah, "I have heard other comments . . . about other teachers . . . [such as], 'oh, this person is a bilingual teachers but she doesn't speak any English to the kids, nothing at all. She doesn't [even] want to speak English in the classroom . . .'" In

addition, Jane Doe stated, "the bilingual program has to be . . . very sure that they are getting the best teachers that they possibly can; that they truly are bilingual . . . They have to be able to function in English as well as in Spanish." Further, James said, "you have a number of teachers in the bilingual program . . . who refuse under any concept to learn English . . . It's not a question of having an accent, but for you to show that you have fluency in the language."

Sosa and Gonzalez (1993) stated that bilingual teachers feel isolated because they do not use English as the primary vehicle for instruction. Also, isolation comes from them being a numerical minority group in schools since often only one classroom per grade level is designated bilingual. The issue of isolation was an emerging theme in this study. But, according to Rotberg (1984), the segregation and isolation of language minorities is not only an imposition of the mainstream, it sometimes results from their participation in it. The participants perceived that sometimes bilingual and monolingual teachers, in some schools, separate or segregate themselves.

In addition, it was found that there are a number of factors or issues that contribute to isolation and/or segregation. First, the participants perceived that monolingual and bilingual teachers segregate themselves because of cultural differences. Jane Doe said, "you're in an alien culture here and it's not always accepting of the way you look, the way you dress, the way you act. So you're comfortable and familiar . . . with people . . . who make you feel good." Also, Ana said, "bilingual teachers are of different cultures and they speak different languages and somehow, not all monolingual teachers . . . think that it's not good to be different."

The participants also perceived that in some schools the issues of isolation and segregation are sometimes due to language barriers between monolingual and bilingual

staff. Barbara said, "we had [groups of] native Hispanic and native Anglos. People . . . often grouped themselves by their language." Also, Ana said, "I hear [people say that the] . . . Russian teachers are a little bit distant because they speak a different language . . . [Some] people don't like it because . . . they don't understand." According to Sarah, "[the bilingual teachers] . . . that don't speak much English . . . don't want to integrate with the other teachers."

Isolation and segregation, according to some of the participants, occur because some bilingual teachers experience discrimination and prejudice. Rotberg (1984) particularly supported this theme in the literature review in the desegregation sub-section. Ximar said, "[prejudice] is not open because people are very careful but it's underlined." According to Javier:

Sometimes we make the mistake of isolating ourselves from other people because we give too much importance to this type of prejudice and many times we imagine that it can happen to us or we see everything with the color of prejudice.

In addition, Petronila said:

It's difficult not to integrate with other people but basically . . . I think that it had a lot to do with the fact that your last name is Martinez or Perez . . . [Prejudice] is kind of subtle, it is not expressed out there that you can like take action.

Another factor contributing to segregation and isolation is the nature of the TBE program. In this program model, teachers commonly work alone in a self-contained classroom. As evidence, Jane Doe stated that:

[The] issue of isolation . . . [exists], particularly in transitional bilingual programs, if the teachers operate by themselves in a pull-out program . . . In two-way programs or inclusions programs where English-speaking teachers and Spanish-speaking teachers are together, there is more of a chance to learn from each other.

There were two other issues that contribute to the isolation and segregation of bilingual and monolingual teachers but were not classified as findings since the majority of the participants did not support them. First, the participants stated that there have been instances where monolingual educators have violated their constitutional right by asking them not to speak in their native language. Second, some of the participants felt that monolingual teachers sometimes have expressed ill feelings because bilingual teachers are in demand for employment and regular teachers are not.

On one side, the interviews revealed the theme of isolation. Another finding reveals that many of the participants felt that in some schools, bilingual teachers work as a unit or cooperatively for the students and the goals of the program. According to Petronila, "we had like 10 to 12 people in that department and we were a very close group, you know maybe because of the kids." Also, Javier said, "the difference was in the group of bilingual teachers that worked as a team and who decided to demonstrate through their performance that . . . bilingual education does work." Further, James stated:

If there is unity amongst teachers in the bilingual program, many [of its] problems will come to an end . . . Unity is value for the progress and development of any society and in this case, the bilingual program. I worked in a school where the six bilingual teachers, although we didn't know each other well, but we were united. When we identified pettiness that we understood were discriminatory, immediately we would set up a meeting with the principal.

Another finding is that, aside from the isolation and unity themes, most of the participants felt that any bilingual teacher, including themselves, could integrate with teachers in the regular track given that they have competency in their subject area or level, and that they have English language proficiency. According to Javier, "when you educate yourself and you prepare yourself and you become a professional, you can open doors." Also, Jane Doe said, "I can go in and out of both cultures and in some ways . . . I

can act as intermediary or messenger or communicators." In addition, James stated that "yes, there is discrimination, but when you have an identity and you know [yourself] . . . you can overcome those things by letting [others] know that you are a competent person."

In order to promote pluralism within the schools, the district encourages the study of different cultures and languages during specific calendar months. This may be seen as an attempt to alleviate some of the racial and cultural tensions that exists in some schools. Some examples are as follows: November is for Puerto Rican history and culture; in December schools celebrate Christmas, Hanukkah, and Kwanzaa; January is for Three Kings Day; February is African-American awareness and Chinese New Year; and foreign language celebrations are in March. Schools are encouraged to do in-depth studies in any of the above topics, in addition to mounting plays, exhibitions, and festivals as a school and community based project.

In addition, more schools are trying to implement inclusion and two-way bilingual models in order to allow the integration of all teachers and students. Also, these programs are geared to promote bilingualism and bi-culturalism amongst all students. According to Ana, "as a whole school we have multicultural nights . . . [where we present] customs and foods [from different cultures]." Also, Valerie said, "some teachers want to learn Russian and even greet us in Russian."

Student Issues

Participants were invited to discuss student-related issues. However, they were to discuss the student issues that mostly affect their teaching performance. In this question, they were provided with at least nine different guide topics (see Appendixes E & F) selected from the literature. They were also given the option to discuss the topics that

were most meaningful to them and/or bring in other topics. Out of the nine topics, they chose to talk about five and brought forth at least 16 other issues to discuss.

From the total number of topics discussed, there were at least nine emerging themes. Both groups of participants contributed to these themes. The literature that supports them is found in Chapter II, under the sub-sections dedicated to students, parents, and second language learning. Some of findings were student centered. However, there were others findings that although parent-focused, nevertheless affected students and, in turn, bilingual teachers.

The first theme is that most language minority students come from low-socio economic backgrounds. In Chapter III, under the section dedicated to the setting, the high poverty level of Westpoint student population supports this finding. Sarah said, "[the students] are from low socio-economic status [since] they all receive free lunch." Also, Juan said, "many students in the bilingual program . . . had to work. I had students that left school early because they had to go to work." Further, Ana said:

Counselors collect extra clothes for those kids and we ask teachers to give their extra clothes that they have. And sometimes we need to provide medical care . . . [for] those kids. [We give] extra money . . . [to] the teachers' union to buy [eye] glasses or fix [eye] glasses because families cannot afford it.

The second finding only affects one particular language group. The issue of family mobility only occurs amongst Hispanics according to the participants. According to Jane Doe, "the mobility is a huge factor in a lot of kids' achievement . . . If you look closely at kids' records you see . . . three, four, five schools from over a year or even within a year." Also, Juan said:

That was a big problem. Also, that's why many students are considered to be in the bilingual program for five and six years because they move . . . and within a year they come back. Therefore the student doesn't acquire the [second] language.

For the Vietnamese and the Russian students, the issue of family mobility did not affect them. Valerie said, "no, you don't see this a lot. If they are here, they stay in our school. If they decide to move to another place, it would probably be one or two time in their lives. They don't move from place to place."

Another theme is that most participants felt that the students who come from dysfunctional homes also show an effect in their job performance. Jane Doe said, "family problems, you know--divorce, death, illnesses, domestic violence are all issues that a lot of kids have." Also, Juan said, "the majority of the students lived with their mothers. They lived with their . . . uncles, aunts and grandmothers . . . They [even] lived with people they didn't know--with a friend."

The fact that bilingual students come from different places and bring diverse educational backgrounds and knowledge has or had an impact on the participants' work performance. This theme was supported by the literature review under student issues.

According to CC:

If it is an Asian student, . . . [the administration] assume[s] you know the language of that kid . . . [That made it] extremely difficult because [not only did I have Asian students] I had kids from the Middle East, too. And they are such a political and diplomatic country and it was hard not only . . . [dealing with] the diversity of the students, but often with the parents.

In addition, Ximar said:

When you have kids who come from different countries, they come from different school settings and they don't come with the same background . . . I had 115 kids who were English speakers but they had the domain of the street language.

The participants claimed that the bilingual pupils came or still come into their classrooms with many learning needs. This theme was also supported in the literature review sub-sections under parents and student issues (Gomez-Navarrette, 1996; Mini-

Digest of Education Statistics, 1995). According to Ximar, "out of 125 [students], I am going to say probably 60 were at grade level." Also, T said, "in the Vietnamese community, there are three different types of refugees. Not the same like Russian or Hispanic . . . So they have three different educational backgrounds. So their learning [needs] are different." In addition, Jane Doe said:

Many times kids don't have the preparation that they need for schooling so that puts them at a disadvantage right away since kindergarten . . . [Further,] there are more and more . . . bilingual kids to be referred to special education and this is interesting because many of them have the same profile. They have average performance IQ and very depressed verbal skills and a lot of it is because of [the lack of] experiences.

The interviewees felt that parents who had achieved low levels of education affected their work performance. The literature supports this and adds that some parents who lack education are not prone to contribute to their child's education (Gomez-Navarrette, 1996). According to Jane Doe, "[the students'] parents are dropouts, or failures, or parents who are marginally educated either in English or Spanish. I've had illiterate parents... [as well]." Petronila claims that the parents of her students have said, "I barely finished 3rd grade and I'm doing OK. I work in a factory." In addition, Javier said, "we have to educate in many instances the parents of these kids."

The literature review provided many reasons why parents sometimes do not get involved in their children's education (Gomez-Navarrette, 1996; Massachusetts Department of Education, 1994). Further, the interviews revealed that the parents aren't helping the children at home with their education. As a result, this also affects bilingual teachers' workload and performance. According to Petronila, "television has become number one baby sitter." Also, T said, "the Vietnamese parents, you know, they support

their kids but they have the problem if they work--most of them will work from 2 to 11, when the kids come [home] they are not there." Further, Ana said:

Problems come from parents who don't have enough time to spend with children to help them with homework or something else they need. So it gives us more to do on our own as teachers, you know, we have to deal with kids somehow because they don't have support from the family.

Another finding is that both parents and students sometimes urge early exit from bilingual programs. Problems resulting from early exit programs were addressed in the sub-sections of the literature under second language learning, program models and students issues. This theme is particularly supported in the sub-section of the literature dedicated to parents. In addition, this chapter discussed early exit under the first section dedicated to philosophy.

According to CC, "once in a while we would have some Asian parent come in and say, you know, 'my kid doesn't want to be in [this] program. My kid feels that this program is holding them back.'" Also, Petronila said, "I had a couple of kids that were with me in 10th grade and then mainstreamed and returned because they didn't do too well." Further, Jane Doe said:

[Minority parents] . . . don't understand that native language assists the acquisition of the second language. That's not understood because immigrant groups here haven't done that . . . Many parents think that they do their child a favor by not putting them in the program. They think they are going to learn English faster.

After discussing all the student-related issues selected by the interviewees, the participants were asked if they felt that bilingual students come to school with more issues than the mainstream students. Half of them agreed that students in the bilingual program had more issues than students in the regular track. According to James, "in the regular track you receive students in the same situations, but [you get them] more in the

bilingual program." Also, Jane Doe said, "many of the bilingual children are equally or if not more at risk . . . [This is] based on the screenings that are done . . . in kindergarten."

The other half of the participants felt that both groups of pupils were equal in terms of needs. Petronila said, "[in] talking to other teachers, regular class teachers, they have the same situation happening to them."

Aside from these findings, there were other student-related issues discussed that were not classified as findings since the majority of the participants did not support them. These are as follows: students migrate for different reasons; hygiene; cultural differences; gangs/violence; family imposed gender bias; students lack motivation to learn; pupils have a domain of street skills vs. academic skills; attendance; self-esteem; parents nurture native language at home; and education in the native land.

Support Staff

In this section, both groups of participants were asked whether their school had employed bilingual support staff--paraprofessionals, secretaries, counselors, and administrators. They were also asked how the absence of the support staff impacts their work? There were at least nine different categories found and both groups of interviewees agreed equally upon these themes. One of these themes has been determined to be a difference between monolingual and bilingual teachers.

The literature that supports these findings is found in Chapter II, under the subsections dedicated to bilingual program components and parents. In Chapter III, under the section the setting, the data reveal that, of the total student population, 40% is Hispanic and 2% is Asian. Thus, at least 42% of the student population are language minorities and could benefit from the services provided by bilingual support staff. In

addition, of the total student body, 12% are limited English proficient students who would also benefit from these services.

The first theme deals with paraprofessionals. Although not discussed in the literature, Chapter 71A of the M.G.L., section five, specifies that, if the number of students enrolled in a class goes beyond the pupil/teacher ratio, that teacher is required to have a para-professional. In the last section of this chapter, the participants expressed their satisfaction over the mandated pupil/teacher ratio. All of the participants said their schools had employed teacher aides and that the schools were not in violation of this law. Ana said, "we have just some. Now they hired one more so we have two Russian-speaking teacher's aides in the building. But again we're a K-8 building, so definitely that's not enough." Also, Thu said, "there are a couple of bilingual aides here, but you know, they are limited . . . [and] we can't use them whenever there is a case that comes up in the office."

The second theme deals with the fact that the majority of schools did not have a bilingual secretary. The participants felt there was a need for such personnel. Juan said, "there is a need for secretaries that speak two languages . . . because we have to help our people [and] so we can attract more parents." Also, Ximar said, "they talked about it, 'oh, we need a bilingual secretary.' But I have never seen an effort to really recruit a person who is bilingual." In addition, Jane Doe said, "we need desperately, and the principal is very much well aware, we need bilingual office personnel."

Another theme is that there is a lack of bilingual counselors and the participants felt there was a need for them as well. Chapter 71A of the M.G.L. only recommends that bilingual counselors be hired to service LEP children; therefore, schools are not required to recruit them. T said, "I know that the Vietnamese parents' council . . . asked the

central office many times about Vietnamese counselor for the [entire] system . . .

Somebody did apply but central office didn't give any answer."

The absence of bilingual support personnel, participants said, impacts their workload. The literature review discusses workload under the sub-section dedicated to work environment issues. In this chapter, workload is also addressed in the sections dedicated to job components and program implementation. This theme would also be considered a difference between monolingual and bilingual teachers.

Javier said, "there are a number of tasks expected from the bilingual teacher... We have to be filling in those gaps and we do it willingly . . . Other teachers don't have to go to that extreme." Also, Valerie said, "we don't have any liaison person; we don't have anybody in the office who speaks Russian . . . We don't have anybody in central office who speaks Russian . . . So it's up to the teachers to do the service." Further, Petronila said, "sometimes they will interrupt our classes because the bilingual parent will come and nobody will understand him or her. So, we are trying to teach but then this person is here and you know, we are not going to say, 'come back another time.'"

Both groups of participants said their work was impacted by having to do the following tasks: doing written translations; verbal translations for other personnel; sitting in conferences; and answering phone calls. Barbara said, "and so for any kind of conferences, cores, telephones calls, questions, notices going home, the bilingual teachers had to do that. And I had to do that tremendously. That was a lot of extra work." In addition, Ana said:

We did have a . . . [Russian] liaison person . . . and that person had to work with the Russian-speaking parents. And now, because we don't have such a program, they ask some of the teachers many times to talk to parents, make phone calls, translate for somebody who comes to the office. Of course, it interrupts our time and we

have to, you know, spend extra time doing something else because it's outside of our classroom.

All of the participants claimed that even though this wasn't a required duty on their part, they nonetheless did it willingly. Juan said, "it has never bothered me, I have helped translating for parents." Also, Delia said, "no, I never thought it was my responsibility. I also felt sorry when . . . parents who didn't speak English came to the office and couldn't communicate." In addition, Ximar said, "I remember that the secretaries . . . didn't ask the person, you know, 'we have a Spanish speaking parent, can you help?' No, they took it for granted."

The services given by bilingual support personnel, the participants felt are also for the parents. The literature review addresses this theme in the sub-section dedicated to parents. Jane Doe said, "we need bilingual office personnel because if a parent calls who doesn't speak English . . . I'm that person that gets called to . . . talk on the phone." Also, Barbara said:

But in addition to my own children, there were families where the parents were non-English speakers and bilingual teachers were often called to translate and intermediate in those circumstances. If somebody came in for a conference . . . we had to go and do that.

The participants felt that the services provided by bilingual support staff were not for just LEP students, but also for language minority students. Delia said, "I think that many of the misunderstandings with the students that don't speak English are because people don't understand. They don't understand certain things." Also, Pedro said:

When the students went to the office, the secretary would sit them in a corner and wouldn't service them. If there came a student who spoke English or was an American, . . . [the secretary] would serve them before my students because of the mere fact that my students could not speak English.

According to Javier:

We are dealing with students who have recently arrived at the district and even the monolingual [Hispanic] students raised here, to know that there is a person there who is sensitive to their culture and who can understand other things, that makes an enormous difference.

The lack of bilingual administrators (principals and assistants) was the last theme found. Although there were more findings claiming the need for bilingual support personnel, there was a very small amount of evidence testifying that the presence of such personnel positively impacts bilingual programs. In a school where there was a bilingual assistant principal, Javier said, "the fact that in the administration there is a bilingual person who went through the experience of being a bilingual educator . . . that makes an incredible difference." Also, that same school had a bilingual counselor and Javier expressed, "one of these persons is bilingual . . . [and] is making a big difference with the bilingual students; with the bilingual professionals. The other counselors in many instances they can't deal, sincerely, with many of the issues that come up."

External Factors

During one part of the interview, both groups of participants were asked to discuss external factors that have or had an effect on them. These factors originate either at the district or state level, but not at the schools. To facilitate the interview process, a list of topics was given in the interview guide questions. Also, the participants were given the option to either select from the list those factors that affected them the most or to bring in topics that were not already listed.

There were 11 different topics listed (see Appendixes E & F). Out of those, the participants chose to discuss only nine. They also brought in six other topics (i.e., racism,

accent, assessment, resources, referral of students to special education, and the general lack of knowledge about bilingual education) but none of these were classified as findings since a majority of the interviewees did not support them.

The first factor discussed and supported by both groups was pay. At least half of the participants felt that the pay rate was good for them. Juan said, "where I come from the pay is a lot less unfortunately, and I consider that the pay here is very good."

However, the other half of the interviewees disagreed with the pay rate for varied reasons: larger workload than the regular teacher, the ability to speak a second language, having more certification requirements, and because of the cost of living. Sarah said:

I think that the bilingual teacher should get paid more because . . . I can do a monolingual [teacher's] job . . . [and] I can do a bilingual [teacher's] job, but I have to know a whole another language . . . In that aspect, I think there should be another pay schedule because that would give other people [an] incentive and that's also saying, . . . "you are important."

The second factor discussed was certification. Although it was supported by both groups as having or having had an impact on their professional lives, this factor had a bigger impact on former bilingual teachers. The concerns varied from difficulty of the teacher's state test and the amount of requirements needed for certification. These issues were discussed in the first section of the literature review. Ana said:

I've been invited to attend the [state's] certification committee . . . and I can say that those tests are very hard. And I don't know how . . . [teachers who] are finishing college can answer all of those questions . . . if they've never been in a classroom, they can't know all of the details they [ask] . . . in those questions . . . If Russian teachers needed to take this test you know they can pass the test. It's not a problem. But if it's an English-speaking person who learned Russian in college and wanted to become a Russian bilingual teacher, it's a big problem. If you're not a native speaker, it's a problem.

According to Ximar:

Certification, when I started that really affected my job because I came from Puerto Rico with over 20 certifications. Then I come here, you come to a different setting and then the state has different standards and you have to meet the standards . . . Then you have to go to take college courses and that doesn't give you emotional security.

Another topic discussed was pupil/teacher ratio. Chapter 71A of the M.G.L. and district's specifications regulate the pupil/teacher ratio. Massachusetts State law subsection of the literature review discusses the limit for the number of students in bilingual classrooms. In addition, the district has established in their bylaws that the enrollment of students in inclusion classes is not to exceed 15 students per teacher (SEA, 1998). The findings show that the schools were not in violation of the pupil/teacher regulations and that the participants did not present any issues pertinent to this matter. According to Sarah, "coming from Puerto Rico, I was 1st to 7th grade. In first grade I had 36 kids; 6th grade I had 29; and 7th I had 38. When I came here, in 1st grade . . . I had 12 [kids]. I was in heaven."

The need for support has been addressed in previous sections of this chapter as well as the first section of the literature review. The participants were specifically asked if they had received support from the district's director of bilingual programs. Half of the respondents, who were predominantly former bilingual teachers, said they have not received any support from the director of bilingual programs. CC said:

I remember one time, I was really stressed out . . . my whole face was popped out with pimples . . . and I was not able to function very well. So the principal noticed that I was breaking out. I was falling apart. [He had] X come in . . . [to] talk to me and said, 'are you unhappy with the school?' I said, 'no, it's not the school. It's just so much work. I'm bombarded. I go to bed like a couple of hours a night. I work seven days a week. Saturday and Sunday, I do lesson plans. I'm tired. I'm burned out.' And her suggestion was, 'do you want to go to another school?' So I explained to her that . . . I really don't need to move to another school. That would

create me another problem. So my guess is that if you want to call . . . [that support] you can, but she didn't help me with her suggestion.

The other half of the participants, who were mostly active bilingual teachers, said they had received support. This came as a result of a change in the administration a few years ago. Petronila said, "they are supporting us a little more than they used to. But in the old days, when X was here, we never got any support from X in any way."

School safety was yet another issue discussed and one that didn't present itself as a problem for most of the participants as the findings reveal. This was an issue that wasn't discussed in the literature review; however, there are specifications in the Massachusetts Education Reform Act of 1993 regarding safety and also, the district has its own regulations. Javier said, "no, that doesn't affect me . . . There are, as you know, security guards in the schools."

The national, state, and district politics and their battle over bilingual education impact the majority of the participants' profession. This issue is representative of a great portion of the literature review chapter. Barbara said, "it wasn't always a question of what's best for the child . . . there was some political agenda always on the side." Also, Javier said:

First of all, the politics have to change . . . at the national level . . . That war, that political issue with bilingual education has to end. It is about time that bilingual education is seen as an academic program that is as legitimate as any other [educational program] . . . Once that's clear, it impacts as much the students as the teachers.

From the political battles come policy changes or political threats. These threats were discussed in the sub-section dedicated to Massachusetts' state law and were revisited in the section addressing the reasons why teachers leave or transfer out of the

program. As a result, it is an issue that impacts both groups, although it affects one group more than the other. Ana said:

We have to fight to prove again and again that children need . . . [bilingual programs] and that they need the support when they come to this country. And that's fearful. Somehow I'm always confident or sure that . . . [they won't get rid of the program].

According to Javier:

As the years go by, you ask [yourself], 'my God, will I be . . . [working] next year?' . . . Therefore, that creates a lot of anxiety. It surely affects you . . . I don't worry about it now. It worried me in previous years.

The media was another factor that negatively impacted both groups of participants. It did, however, affect more teachers currently working in the bilingual programs than former bilingual teachers. This issue was discussed in the last sub-section of the literature review. Petronila said, "it seems like the media basically tries to emphasize the negative side of the [program]." Also, Javier said:

Yes, it affects you . . . We have to go through the experience where there have been extraordinary things happening with bilingual students; for example . . . they have been the 1st honors in the whole graduating class. We have called the newspapers and that event is not interesting enough to publish it on the front page.

Both groups of participants said that interest or community groups have had an impact on their professional life. The impact of the community on bilingual education was not discussed in the literature review, but interest groups were addressed in the very last sub-section of the literature review. However, half of the respondents said that the experience was negative. According to Ximar:

I worked in a Hispanic community and those people from the community were always putting their noses inside of the school. They always wanted to know what was going on and how were the Hispanic teachers treated, you know. So there was this kind of disagreement between the administration and the leaders, the

community leaders . . . It's just not comfortable. They put the bilingual teacher in the middle of it.

The school system has established partnerships with businesses to work with the schools. This was a positive experience for half of the participants. According to Javier:

[The] resources within the community . . . are contributing enormously to education... These partnerships available with community agencies . . . [and] other professionals from the city that are coming to the schools to do workshops for the students . . . We are coming to an era where that is necessary. Schools cannot become isolated and function on their own.

Primary Needs

Teachers currently working in the bilingual program were asked to say what their primary needs were and how fulfilling those needs would make them more effective educators. Former bilingual teachers were also asked to think about their primary needs were when they were working in the program. This question had no boundaries. As a result, four major categories were found and were supported by both groups.

One of the participants' primary needs was materials and resources. The majority of the respondents in this category were current bilingual teachers. Pedro said, "well, I think that one of our needs was [for the district] to provide sufficient materials so that I could teach my class." Further, Ana said:

I had a very difficult time to find any type of materials in Russian . . . I don't have a Russian set of books or . . . [there aren't] many Russian books to begin with . . . I had to go to New York to find book stores . . . If I could have textbooks and workbooks and computer program software in Russian language that would be very helpful.

The second major need was support. In this category, the majority of the respondents were former bilingual teachers. It is important to mention that the district developed a mentorship project for new and uncertified teachers. However, the program

was founded recently and none of the former bilingual teaching participants benefited from this program. Pedro said, "another need is that morally we were affected by [other issues] and that the principal should have also offered support to the bilingual teachers. That is a basic need I think everyone has." In addition, teachers currently working in bilingual programs also said that they needed support. Javier said, "teachers are isolated in the classroom, dealing with many issues and don't have support . . . A teacher needs support. [He/she] . . . needs qualified personnel to be able to vent a series of issues."

Both groups of teachers claimed there was a need for consistency in the implementation of programs as well as supervision. Sarah said, "I wish that they would . . . find a way to continue either the integrated bilingual classroom because . . . I find a lot of advantages. I see so much growth, like I mentioned earlier, that I don't want my students to regress." In addition, Ximar said:

What the program needs is supervision, you know, as a process of help. Anywhere, in any setting, it doesn't have to be a school setting, any setting that you work, you need supervision as a process of help. When you leave a group of people on their own, they try to do their best.

The need for training was equally supported by both groups of teachers. This is despite the fact that the Education Reform Act mandated the re-certification requirements and that the district implemented a mandatory staff development program. Javier said, "the professional development program of this . . . [district] is very good, . . . but nothing is perfect. It also has its areas in need of improvement." Delia said, "I think that good training is needed before beginning to work and during the process." Further, Ximar said:

I was starving for some training because that setting, which was disturbing to me, you know, I had bilingual kids who most of them were English speakers and mix. I had special needs kids. And I would have loved to have, you know, the opportunity to get some training. It was mostly training and support.

Other needs that were not classified as findings since a majority of the participants did not support them were as follows: support staff--bilingual secretaries, counselors, and others; to recognize bilingual education as legitimate and valuable; collegial acceptance or to have the same professional status as mainstream teachers; to end the political battle over bilingual education; to develop a curriculum representative of the languages of instruction; to develop better assessment tools; and a needs assessment study of each school's bilingual program.

Why Bilingual Teachers Enter and Stay in the Field

There were five themes found in the interviews. When asked this question, the number one response from all participants was that teaching was their only career of choice. Petronila said, "I always wanted to be a teacher . . . this is just the way it is . . . It's a challenging kind of job but at the same time it's rewarding . . . You have to be on your toes every day and I'm learning something new every day." Also, Javier said, "number one [reason for staying in this field], because it's my vocation, that's number one. I discovered that it was my vocation. This is what I wanted to do. I like what I do."

The majority of the participants had previous experience teaching in another country before they came to work at Westpoint. T, who is from Vietnam, said, "I spent 13 years in my country teaching so I want to keep it for the rest of my life." Also, Valerie said, "this . . . [was] my career in Russia for 10 years". Further, Sarah, who is Caucasian, said, "I taught English in Puerto Rico and there, I taught science and social studies in Spanish." This supports what the literature says about bilingual teacher shortage, that the colleges and universities aren't producing as many candidates as needed (Sosa &

Gonzalez, 1993; Walsh, 1994). Therefore, many teaching candidates at Westpoint are sought from elsewhere.

The second finding is that bilingual teachers stay in this profession because they love working with students. Ana said, "I love children . . . I wanted to help the Russian children as much as I can with language [and] with any other needs they have." Also, Javier said, "I've always said that the force that motivates me to keep on doing what I'm doing is my students."

Another finding is that bilingual teachers stay in the field in order to help students maintain their native language and culture as well as learn the second language. This is supported by the sub-section of the literature review under goals of bilingual education. It is specified in the Title VII Act and is recognized under the pluralism theory. Thu said, "I like to see the children here learning two cultures and two languages . . . and I like to preserve their heritage." Also, Sarah said, "I want them to feel proud of who they are and their culture. I don't want them to feel like embarrassed or think that they are less or ashamed . . . because they are bilingual."

The last theme is that bilingual educators stay in the field to help both the students and families. Jane Doe said, "children need an advocate and I believe that I'm an advocate. And I'm there . . . to provide not only for the kids but for the parents." T said, "I want to stay in the bilingual program to help the Vietnamese community and I want to make a bridge between parents and kids . . . [for their] social and cultural understanding."

There were other factors that contributed to some bilingual teachers entering and staying in the field but which were not determined to be findings since the majority of the participants did not support them. These are as follow: professional growth; the demand

for bilingual workforce; the participants identified themselves with the culture and language of the students; and their close relationships with their colleagues.

Why Bilingual Teachers Exit the Program

There were four recurring themes that came forth in this section. Factors contributing to bilingual teachers leaving the profession or exiting the program at Westpoint can be said to be both internal and external.

There is a relationship between some of the themes that emerged from this study and the internal and external factors that contribute to the issue of retention mentioned in the shortage and demand sub-section of the literature review by Boe (1990), Gonzalez and Sosa (1993), Schmidt (1992), and Weiss (1987). Also, there is a link between some of the findings and the issues that affect bilingual teachers in the work environment as mentioned by Lemberger (1992), and Sosa and Gonzalez (1993) in that sub-section of the literature review.

In addition, this study supports the idea proposed in Chapter III, under the sampling section that, depending on the setting where the research is being conducted, there will be factors contributing to the problem of attrition that are specific to that setting. This idea came in part from Lam's (1992) argument that the degree of implementation of a bilingual program is dependent on the regulations and needs of that particular district and state.

With this background information in mind, the first theme found or the first reason given by participants for discontinuing to work in bilingual programs was the political threats against bilingual education. This caused them to look for job or economic security in other fields or in other areas of education. Ximar said, "number one

[reason], job security, the threats . . . [were there] all the time and we never knew what was going to happen." Also, Juan said, "what made me transfer from the bilingual program into the regular program was the insecurity . . . [brought] from the political changes. You know like in California, . . . they are eliminating the bilingual program."

These political threats to bilingual education were addressed in the second section of the literature review under Massachusetts State law. This threat was also said to be imposed by the administration. James said, "many times this administration doesn't provide teachers with [job] security . . . [They say,] 'they're going to do away with the bilingual program.' You can't talk to teachers like that." In addition, Ximar said, "you never [knew] . . . how the superintendent thinks this year the program should be and then, how is the program going to be next year . . . You never had security or stability."

The second reason for leaving bilingual programs was that the participants characterized the school environment as being non-supportive. CC said, "the non-supportive environment made me move." Also, Maria said, "[I left because there was] no support, like from the principals and also the co-workers." Further, Pedro said, "there was no support, there was no moral support."

Another factor that caused the interviewees to leave their positions was the negative perception over the bilingual teaching profession. This was a theme previously discussed in the section dedicated to perceptions of the profession. Ximar said, "[another reason for leaving was because I was] being perceived as a second class teacher. I am a professional . . . I have a master's degree and I was as qualified as anybody. It's a matter of professional status." Also, Barbara said, "[I left because of] the discomfort level [of] being the outsider in the bilingual teachers world." Further Delia said, "if you speak

English with an accent, then you . . . [are treated as if you] don't know your profession or you are ignorant."

The last finding in this section deals with certification requirements--the standardized teacher test and the number of requirements. The issues brought forth were thoroughly discussed in the first section of the literature review and were revisited in the section of this chapter dedicated to external factors. Further, it was addressed under the section dedicated to external factors. CC said, "you can't teach in this district. You have to pass the test. You're not competent enough based on their philosophy or the state regulations." Also, Pedro said, "I had to get two certifications, it wasn't just one. Other teachers got only one . . . People from the department bothered you a lot with this . . . They insisted that the teachers had to go back to study . . . and you had to pay for it."

There were other factors that influenced the decision of some of the participants to leave the bilingual program but were not determined to be findings since the majority of the participants did not support them. These are as follows: the lack of resources and materials; low pay; a greater workload than the regular teacher; for professional growth; the lack of training and preparation; the dislike for co-teaching; and because of conflicting interest in the implementation of the program goals.

Differences Between Former and Active Bilingual Teachers

Differences between these two subject groups are important to accentuate in order to better understand bilingual teacher welfare and to go a step further beyond the reasons given by the participants of why teachers stay or leave the field of bilingual education. At least seven differences emerged in this study. These already received some attention throughout the previous sections of this chapter and are documented in this section in

random order. The purpose of this section is to emphasize these differences in the form of discussion; therefore, they won't be followed by quotations from the participants. These findings were observed by me and are supported by the highest number of respondents from either group.

The first observed difference pertains to training. Both groups of participants claimed they did not receive any training when first entering the field of bilingual education or workforce. In addition, both groups felt that it was one of their primary needs. However, active bilingual teachers pursued training on their own outside of the district while most former bilingual teachers did not. Further evidence was observed when active bilingual teachers went into detailed discussions about the process for second language learning, indicating that they had acquired some training. All former bilingual teachers, on the other hand, stated that one of the goals of bilingual education was early exit. This shows their lack of awareness of current research pertinent to the acquisition of a second language.

A second difference noted was the amount of support received by both groups at their schools. Although support was on the list of primary needs for both former and active bilingual teachers, the lack of it was one of the reasons why most former bilingual teachers left the program. Active bilingual teachers stated that they have received support from program director while most former bilingual teachers said they had not.

Political threats to bilingual education also affected both groups of participants in different ways. While both claimed that this was an outside factor that had an impact on their work, it affected former bilingual teachers more in that they chose to discontinue work in bilingual programs or the teaching profession in their search for job and

economic security. Participants currently working in bilingual programs did not allow political threats to influence them in making such decision.

Professional inequality and issues of certification standards were other findings that impacted both groups of participants in a different way. Evidence showed that both issues caused former bilingual teachers to abandon their positions in the program or the profession. The findings also showed that active bilingual teachers shared these feelings; however, they did not impact this group of participants to the extent of leaving the program or profession.

Finally, negative media coverage and the lack of resources were issues that had a bigger impact primarily on active bilingual teachers. Instructional resources were listed as a primary need, supported by a higher number of active bilingual teachers. Although former bilingual teacher participants did support the fact that the lack of resources was an issue for them, most said that the media was not.

Summary

The lack of research studies focusing upon bilingual teachers and the research design of this dissertation allowed for multiple findings regarding the subject group at Westpoint. This study has uncovered many issues for active and former bilingual teachers. They are as follows:

1. A picture of the role of bilingual teachers within the school environment has emerged;
2. How the bilingual education profession differs from that of teachers in the regular track;
3. Insights of the participants on proper implementation of bilingual programs;

4. Issues particular to bilingual teachers and how those issues affect them;
5. Bilingual teachers' primary needs and the areas in which they need training;
6. Other findings were in relation to standardized assessment, student issues, certification, and external factors.

This dissertation bridged the gap that exists in the literature where studies neglected bilingual teachers. By virtue of this dissertation, former and current bilingual teachers will have a forum for their experiences and ideas in bilingual education.

The next chapter will focus on the implications that this data has for educators and policy makers. What does this all mean for school districts with bilingual programs? What are the implications for future research studies? Chapter V seeks to answer these questions in light of the data.

CHAPTER V

SIGNIFICANCE AND DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Introduction

The purpose of this dissertation was to gain knowledge about a group of professionals who have been neglected in the literary world. A picture painted through the eyes of the researcher and the voices of the participants will allow others to gain an understanding of the experiences and perspectives of bilingual teachers. The data gathered in this study convey significance or meaning to other areas of education which will be discussed in this chapter.

This chapter is divided into two major sections. The first looks at the implications for the state department of education as well as for other school districts. This will be accomplished using the data from the study as a framework. The second section outlines possible avenues to pursue, which can shed more light on this subject.

Most of the implications on this chapter derive from the following general perceptions of the bilingual teachers at Westpoint:

1. Most people who pursue a career in bilingual education are native speakers of the language in which they perform instruction and have previous teaching experience in their native land.
2. Bilingual teachers transfer from the programs or leave the profession because of political threats, professional inequality, certification standards, and the lack of support.
3. Bilingual teachers' workload is greater than the average for teachers in the regular track because of the lack of resources, the absence of support personnel, dual

language teaching, student-related issues, the absence of academic support programs for students, the program model they work in, and having to implement the goals of the program.

4. The bilingual teacher's role entails performing the duties of support personnel as well as implementing bilingual academic support programs for students and program goals.
5. The participants perceive that there is a lack of professional equality between bilingual teachers and other educators. They also perceive that in general bilingual education is poorly valued.
6. The participants perceive at times there is segregation and isolation of bilingual personnel because of racial, language, and cultural issues.
7. Finally, bilingual teachers need training in second language acquisition. Training in bilingual education, philosophy, and practice is essential prior to entering the workforce. Their primary needs are instructional resources, support, and assistance in program implementation.

Significance

State Level

This dissertation has numerous implications at the state level covering a wide range of topics. This is made apparent by the vast number of topics discussed in response to the interview guide questions. The implications drawn will also entail recommendations based on the findings. The topics to be discussed in this section are certification, second language learning, teacher training, student assessment, bilingual program

implementation, bilingual teacher shortage, demand and attrition, bilingual education politics, and others.

In the literature review, the topic of certification was tied into the issues of shortage, demand and attrition. This study showed that the standards for certification were one of the reasons why some teachers left the profession, marking the need for change of requirements. The participants claimed that it was not just the difficulty of the standardized tests, but it was also the number of requirements asked for in the area of bilingual education.

Two very important aspects that have emerged about bilingual teachers, both former and active, in this study have implications for certification standards. One is that most bilingual teachers started their career in another country. The other is that the participants perceived that there are currently employed bilingual teachers who are not fully bilingual. Both aspects serve as evidence that there is a shortage of qualified personnel. Analyzing this carefully, the implications are that many teachers working in bilingual programs are initially hired because they have proficiency in the target language but do not necessarily have proficiency in English. This may be due to of the demand for bilingual teachers.

Lack of proficiency in English means that teaching candidates encounter yet another obstacle when trying to meet the certification requirements. This, in part, will impact attrition, shortage, and demand. The state of Massachusetts, having adopted tougher standards in the name of education reform, will most likely experience a significant shortage and attrition problem in the years to come.

Recommendations to adjust certification requirements can be made based on these specific study findings. First, since teaching candidates must get regular certification

prior to obtaining bilingual certification, the process should be altered to make a direct acquisition for bilingual certification. Pedro expressed this issue in these words, "I had to get two certifications, it wasn't just one. Other teachers got only one."

Other recommendations would be to provide the standardized teacher test in the spoken language of the candidates and later allow them to take the test in English. The state can also mandate prospective teachers to take English language courses offered either through the school district where they are employed or through teacher education programs, in order to help them fulfill the requirements for certification. Finally, the standardized teacher test could be free of charge or a one-time fee, therefore increasing the opportunities to retake the test if needed.

Other implications derive from the finding that some bilingual teachers don't have English language fluency when first hired. This finding has significance for topics such as second language learning, students' timeline of service under bilingual programs, and standardized assessment.

Bilingual teachers are not only required to undergo a series of assessments and educational programs in a language foreign to them, they are also going through the process of becoming bilingual/bicultural. This is to say that they are going through the same experiences as students enrolled in bilingual programs. However, their experience gets more complicated as evidenced in one of the findings. As well as other issues, some teachers have been driven to adopt the notion that a second language can be acquired in three years, becoming oblivious to what current research indicates. and leading them on to other issues as discussed below. This idea is also referred to as the early exit approach, which is forced on bilingual programs by government regulations.

The concept of early exit was reflected in two issues brought up by some of the participants. They expressed that many bilingual students abuse the program when they remain in the program for more than the suggested number of years of service. The second issue was the perception that some bilingual teachers hold back students from getting mainstreamed. These two issues were not classified as findings since the majority of participants did not support them. However, they are worth mentioning because they are a reality perceived by some of the interviewees in the study. The implication emerging from these issues is that there are conflicts amongst bilingual teachers on how to best serve students in bilingual programs. Some push for early exit and others for late exit from the program. This implication is also supported by the findings that there is lack of program supervision and that there should be one implemented program model per building.

Some participants who were fully bilingual recognized that the process for learning a second language takes longer than three years. While some learned this through their own experience in learning a second language, others learned about this process while training at a college or university. This supports the issues discussed in the above paragraph. Further, this signifies not only are the politicians and policies at odds with research studies say about second language acquisition, but also, teachers are in conflict with what they know of learning a second language and what is expected of them as educators by school officials. Sarah describes her experience in learning a second language:

My experience in learning a second language, it took me a while. And I mean, basically what I went through learning it in high school and college was my one-hour a day, five days a week. When I left the classroom, did I speak Spanish at all? No. Did I have any Spanish friends? No. Did I have to speak Spanish when I went to the store or something? No. How much did I really learn?

When I moved back to Puerto Rico, and that was after how many years? Four years in college, four years in high school . . . that's eight years.

In the first section of Chapter IV, participants were asked about their philosophy of bilingual education. The majority expressed that one of the goals was for early exit from the program. Later on, they were asked when students should take the MCAS and the emerging theme was that, if students are not ready by the third year, they should not be forced to take the standardized examination. There are three implications for the topic of student assessment based on these findings:

1. Teachers are at conflict with what is expected of them as educators (in terms of getting students ready to perform in English in three years) and the reality of the students (they will have only achieved an early stage of the second language process in those three years).
2. Teachers are perplexed by the state's mandates on assessment because most have not had formal training on second language acquisition. As a result, they are struggling to get students ready for the MCAS in such a short amount of time.
3. By mandating these policies, the state is setting up teachers, students, and programs for failure.

Returning to the topic of certification requirements, if the standardized teacher test is setting some teachers up for failure due to their lack of fluency in English, the same problem will be faced by students when it comes to the MCAS. This study, through the words and experiences of teachers, further supports not only what the research has been saying about second language learning, but also brings up the concern that the early exit approach does not work for every student.

A recommendation for reconsidering student assessment was brought forth by some of the participants. They felt that there ought to be a reversing of the roles. Only then would state officials acquire a better understanding of what the second language process is all about. Jane Doe stated that, "I'd love it if they pass a law that says, 'OK, you've been in a dual language program for 3 years, the Anglo kids are going to take the MCAS in Spanish.'"

Other recommendations pertinent to assessment are:

1. The state should take into consideration the issues most affecting teachers (such as the lack of fluency in English and training) prior to devising assessment instruments.
2. The state should mandate special program services for students in bilingual programs (i.e., special education, Chapter I, learning centers, etc.). It should be recognized that not all bilingual students have the same learning needs, nor should they be placed in the same track.
3. The state should recognize that student issues (such as mobility) highly affect their academic progress. As a result, they should hold parents accountable if they are not actively involved in the education of their children.
4. Bilingual programs should not be held to the same standards as the regular track if the conditions in which the program is being implemented are not equitable to that of the regular track. This is based on the findings of un-equitable funding, lack of resources, work overload, and others.

Most of the above implications for certification requirements, second language learning, and standardized student assessment have further significance for teacher training. Prior to setting guidelines for training, the state should make a commitment to

hold their educational standards in light of what research says about second language acquisition. Teacher programs at colleges and universities would then no longer be at odds with the state's regulations for program implementation, and as a result, bilingual teachers would receive the professional support they deserve by working in programs that are parallel to research standards rather than political guidelines. Also, students would then be allowed to acquire second language proficiency at their own developmental level. Further, both teachers and students would not have to experience the inequities of standardized assessment.

If this commitment is made, the shift in trend would be that public schools would create a population that is bi-lingual/bi-cultural/bi-literate and who might pursue a career in bilingual education. This will result in making a significant contribution to the pool of qualified bilingual personnel. Further, as a response to the issue of the lack of value for bilingualism and bilingual education found in this study, this whole endeavor would be interpreted as a state level concern and commitment.

Certification and re-certification requirements for administrators and teachers in the regular track should be altered, since the findings showed that they lacked knowledge of bilingual education philosophy and practice, to include training in this area. Also, since bilingual teachers are in part responsible for implementing the goals of the program, they should receive training in management that will help them to fulfill these tasks.

In Chapter IV, the participants brought forth a wide range of student issues that affect or affected their teaching performance. Also, it was found that most of the interviewees taught in their native land prior to becoming a bilingual teacher implying that they were regular education teachers prior to becoming bilingual teachers. In addition, the majority claimed that they did not receive training when they first began

their bilingual education assignment. Based on the experiences of these teachers, the emerging implication is that initial training for prospective teachers in the area of bilingual education is essential. Also, training in classroom management and instruction should include methods for meeting the diverse range of needs of most bilingual students.

As far as guidelines for program implementation are concerned, a shift from the early exit to a late exit approach would improve many areas under bilingual education such as program development, standardized assessment, funding, instructional practices, teachers training, and others. In addition, because of the way bilingual programs are currently being implemented at the high school level, state regulations should consider other avenues for implementing programs that will decrease workload of teachers, allow teachers to perform effective and meaningful instruction, and allow for more inclusion practices.

The issue of bilingual teacher shortage, which was thoroughly discussed in the literature review chapter, was well supported by the findings in this study. The section dedicated to sampling in Chapter III mentioned that a successful attempt was made in this study to have a representation of participants from various ethnic backgrounds. The goal was set to increase the validity of this dissertation. The attempt to find Caucasian participants proved to be very difficult. Out of approximately 200 full-time equivalent bilingual teachers in the target setting, only 3 were Caucasian. As a result, this small number did not allow for choice in selection of Caucasian participants. This supports one of the causes of teacher shortage discussed in the literature review chapter: colleges and universities are not producing teaching candidates for this area of education. This is further supported by the finding that most bilingual teachers in this study come from elsewhere.

There are other implied causes to the issue of teacher shortage stemming from this study. It was previously discussed that certification requirements had an impact on shortage, demand, and attrition. In addition, it can be speculated that another reason why few candidates enter the field of bilingual education is the low value placed upon bilingualism and bilingual education. This implication is also supported by the fact that most of the participants perceived that the bilingual program in their school had very low status in comparison to other programs in their school, and by the theme that the bilingual teaching profession lacks professional equality.

It is recommended that, in order to attract more teaching candidates to the field of bilingual education, incentives must be created. One would be an increase in pay. This is in addition to the recommendations formerly made to facilitate the acquisition of certification requirements. According to Sarah, "I think there should be another pay schedule because that would give people [the] incentive and that's also saying . . . 'you're important.'"

In the literature review chapter, under the federal level sub-section, Edwards (1980) discussed the issue that there was only the illusion of a national concern over bilingual education and that second language studies were largely in the interest of second language teachers. That was almost twenty years ago and yet today there is still some truth to that argument. This is supported by the political battles and threats as discussed in the literature review and in the research findings. According to Barbara, "it wasn't always a question of what's best for the child . . . there was some political agenda always on the side."

Because of these political controversies and conflicts, former bilingual teachers chose to abandon their positions in bilingual programs. According to Juan, "what made

me transfer from the bilingual program into the regular program was the insecurity . . . [brought] from the political changes." Also, it is speculated that the low status of bilingual education and the low regard for the bilingual teaching profession is connected to this controversy and threats. There is a need to tone down these political battles, for they are affecting both former and active bilingual teachers, students, the effectiveness and success of the program, and the overall value of bilingualism.

The last implications brought forth in this section are in relation to the topics of support staff and resources as well as retention and attrition. Regarding support staff, Chapter 71A of the Massachusetts General Laws should contain language mandating the hiring of this type of personnel to provide equitable services for students; to decrease the workload of teachers; and as a means to increase parental involvement in schools.

As far as instructional materials are concerned, it can be speculated that the lack of commercially prepared resources can be linked to the political unpopularity of bilingual education. Businesses are unwilling to produce teaching materials if the market may disappear. The state should make a political commitment to bilingual education and influence businesses to manufacture resources for this area of education. This would not only decrease the workload of teachers, but would also upgrade the level of instruction for students.

Finally, from the sections dedicated to the differences between former and active teachers and why they enter or exit the program in Chapter IV, the emerging implication is that neither group of participants falls into one specific category. However, by recognizing the differences between the groups, the state and school districts can target and remedy the issues most affecting bilingual teachers, especially those provoking

attrition, in order to make work conditions satisfactory to potential teaching candidates. Incentives or opportunities to compensate for barriers or obstacles are also encouraged.

In conclusion, the implications brought forth as a result of this study suggest many areas in need of change. Most of the changes can be effected in Chapter 71A of the Massachusetts General Laws and the department of education, which controls bilingual education in the state. Future results can only be observed in time through the experiences of individual school districts.

School Districts

This study had numerous implications for school districts as well as individual schools, and produce several recommendations based on its findings. The topics to be discussed are supervision, implementation, training, and workload. Implications made at the state and district level are tied together in that any changes to be made for the betterment of bilingual programs are necessary at both levels in order for the changes to be more effective.

With regard to supervision, the participants in this study claimed that bilingual programs were deficient in this aspect. This was also an implication made in part by Gonzalez and Sosa's (1993) research, where they stated that bilingual teachers need direct assistance from their supervisors with the implementation of the program. However, a primary implication of this finding is that there is a need for administrative accountability and/or that administrators need to play a bigger role in the implementation of the program. It can be speculated that administrators may choose not to supervise bilingual programs because of their lack of knowledge of bilingual education philosophy. Participants in this study perceived a lack of knowledge on the part of administrators.

Issues stemming from second language learning and teaching can be linked to the problem of bilingual programs not receiving sufficient or any supervision. It was said that conflict amongst teachers arises when they disagree on how to best educate language minority students. This commonly occurs when early and late exit approaches are simultaneously practiced in one school. Such patterns of inconsistency in practice can be commonly traced to administrators not playing their part in implementing the goals of the program.

The finding that some bilingual teachers do not use English as a method of instruction in the classroom can also be attributed to a lack of administrative supervision. Although this problem is attributed to bilingual teachers not having received initial training and to the lack of English proficiency on the teachers' part, administrators should nevertheless provide some support either through mentorship or direct supervision. Gonzalez and Sosa (1993) also support this in their research, where they claim that teachers need direct assistance in implementing bilingual education strategies and practices.

The lack of supervision sends mixed messages about the value of bilingual education. Participants in this study felt that the status of their programs, in comparison to other programs, was relatively low. The majority of the interviewees agreed that the amount of support given to the bilingual programs was less than that received by other educational programs.

The role of the administrator should also be exercised when the staff is polarized or when there is division along racial and ethnic lines. Supporting evidence for this implication is found where the study participants perceived there is segregation or separation of monolingual and bilingual staff. This further implies that, if the entire staff

is not working cooperatively, the goals of the program may not be successfully implemented. As a result, not only will this affect the academic progress of students, it will also create internal factors that will affect the welfare of teachers and possibly cause them to leave the program.

Direct administrative involvement in any of the above-mentioned areas or issues could be interpreted as a step towards supporting teachers. The need for support was not only classified as one of the findings, but also the non-supportive environment was considered to be one of the reasons why former bilingual teachers exited the program. Administrators should further refrain from disclosing information pertinent to political threats and instead should work towards creating an environment that is secure for both teachers and students.

On the subject of program implementation, the findings showed that there is a need for instructional resources, funding, training, support staff, and bilingual special service programs. These would also be considered the recommendations stemming from the participants for the program component applications specific to the target setting. Other suggested measures for implementation are to assure that both monolingual and bilingual teachers are working cooperatively towards the goals of the program and that bilingual teachers are practicing English language instruction.

Other findings with implications for program implementation are the need to have one program model per school building, as well as the need for a variety of program models throughout the district. Some emerging implications are that, by having this type of set up in the school system, schools would focus more on one program rather than a variety of programs. This would allow for better transition of the students into the

mainstream since pupils would undergo a program model that is appropriate for them. This is also viewed as a means of tracking and providing students with consistency.

The need for implementation of different programs throughout the district was also supported by the finding where participants claimed that two-way and inclusion models would better benefit pupils born in this country and that TBE models would be more serviceable to children who just arrived from a foreign country. The emerging implication from these two themes is that one program cannot meet the needs of all children. Another significance is that students could transfer from one program to the other depending on their needs and abilities as well as through teacher recommendations.

The implementation of a variety of programs in a school system also allows for the recognition that students have different language needs. This is further supported by the findings showing that there is a high mobility rate amongst Hispanic students and that students come into school from different settings and with diverse educational backgrounds. Tracking students by program models could help break down the workload of teachers by allowing them to work with groups of children with similar language and learning needs.

Findings in this study also showed that there is a growing preference for inclusion and two-way models, especially in the lower grades. The implication is that these types of programs help break down racial and language barriers, promote pluralism and bilingualism, and eradicate the negative perceptions of bilingual education. However, TBE programs should not be disregarded since they are more beneficial to children who are at an early stage of the second language acquisition process. These findings further imply that, through the implementation of a variety of program models, students are more

likely to succeed since each program is set out to play an important role in the education of the child.

As far as training is concerned, the implications and recommendations made at the state level play a major role at the district level. District-wide training in bilingual education philosophy and practice for all staff was found to be need in this study. Monolingual teachers and administrators could learn to support bilingual education by learning about the role they play in the program. In addition, training for managing and implementing bilingual programs for both bilingual teachers and administrators was recommended. Workshops for language minority parents on the bilingual education philosophy of the school system were recommended for showing them ways they could contribute to the education of their children.

For beginning bilingual teachers, especially those lacking fluency in English, training is essential. Training should consist of, in addition to philosophy of bilingual education, second language instructional practices and methods for meeting the needs of all students in the classroom. Second language acquisition training was considered to be of utmost importance, since it was demonstrated in the study that most bilingual teachers are not aware of what this process entails or that they may be going through the process themselves. Given proper training, the performance of dual language instruction will not only be more effective but also teachers can be more receptive to the learning needs of children.

English language courses for teachers lacking fluency in English were also recommended. As a result, bilingual teachers can learn to feel more comfortable teaching in English. In addition, this would help them meet the requirements for certification.

Having achieved dual language fluency, bilingual teachers can integrate with other staff and gain the collegial acceptance they deserve.

Training for all staff should further consist of recognizing the importance of diversity in the workplace. Such training can perhaps empower teachers to break down the barriers that have been built between staff of diverse ethnic and racial backgrounds. Foreign language courses should be offered to monolingual English teachers in order to create a complete bilingual staff. These teachers can then integrate with other bilingual staff and be more helpful to language minority parents and students.

Implications relative to decreasing the workload of bilingual teachers include, based on the findings, the need to provide more instructional resources, hiring support staff, and hiring other staff to implement bilingual academic special programs for students. The recommendations previously made to address the need for supervision, better program implementation and staff development are also geared to lowering the workload of teachers. Further, the myth that lower enrollments equals less work should be eradicated.

Particularly at the high school level, the restructuring of bilingual programs is of utmost importance so that teachers will not have to prepare for double the amount of subjects that a teacher in the regular track handles. This finding suggests that the contract by which all teachers are hired is not inclusive of bilingual teachers since it states that teachers are only required to prepare for two subjects. It further sends mixed messages as far as where bilingual education stands in the views of the teachers' union.

Following the above recommendations for decreasing bilingual teachers' heavy workload has implications for other issues. First, the role of bilingual teachers would be

changed to become almost equal to that of teachers in the regular track. Teacher morale would be enhanced, thereby decreasing the attrition rate.

In conclusion, the above implications were intended to enhance the overall value of bilingual education and increase the success of programs. The next section reviews potential research studies in areas not covered by this dissertation. It further raises questions about the future of bilingual education.

Directions for Future Research

Initially, this study raised the question: how much do we know about bilingual teachers? We concluded we knew little based on data available for the literature review chapter. Therefore, this entire dissertation was developed to lay a foundation for formulating discussions about bilingual teacher welfare. Through the process of development, it was found that questions about bilingual teachers were still unanswered, and that new questions were being raised. This section intends to point out what those questions are in order to steer new directions for future research.

Sadly, the future of bilingual teachers lies in the hands of this country's commitment to bilingual education. As political battles become more intense, the future of bilingual education becomes more in doubt. Consequently, students, parents, teachers, and communities are struggling to prove over and over the need for bilingual services. Highlighting both potential research studies to prove that bilingual education does work and areas where it can be improved, the researcher hopes to provide assistance for the struggle.

This research study has found that bilingual teachers who have proficiency in two languages and the ability to demonstrate competency in their area of work can integrate

amongst other staff. What is still unknown is, what are qualities some bilingual teachers possess that allows them to succeed in the classroom? Potential candidates for this type of study would be people who have the above described qualities; teachers whose students score high on standardized achievement test; and educators who are perceived by their peers as having strong leadership skills.

Throughout the interview process, teachers were very willing to discuss what teaching techniques were most useful in their classroom. The only concern the researcher was that this would be considered a study in itself. It seemed to the researcher, based on personal experience as a teacher, that the participants were somewhat unsure about how much and when to incorporate English and the native language into a lesson. Therefore, a study of effective dual language teaching practices for bilingual classrooms is recommended.

Another outcome of this study was that the majority of the participants were regular education teachers in other countries prior to migrating here and becoming bilingual teachers. Another potential study would be to gain insights on how they became bilingual/bi-literate/bicultural? What experiences were encountered upon their arrival in this country? In the absence of staff development, how did they learn to perform in a bilingual classroom? And what stress management or conflict resolution techniques do they use in their classroom?

Obviously, the perspectives of monolingual teachers and administrators were lacking in this study. A study that is inclusive of their views, particularly monolingual teachers working in two-way or inclusion model programs, would strengthen what knowledge was gained in this dissertation about bilingual teacher welfare. Further, this study, because it included the perspectives of teachers from different minority language

groups, took a general rather than specific approach in the selection of the findings in order to be inclusive of all views. Therefore, studies focusing on teachers of individual language groups are necessary to gather up specifics about that target group.

The participants in this study were given the freedom to bring forth the issues most relevant to them. As a result, in addition to the findings brought forth in Chapter IV, many secondary issues were discussed that were not supported by the majority of the participants and, thus, were not classified as actual findings. However, there is still the possibility that those secondary issues may become actual findings. Therefore, a study structured to focus on these secondary issues may produce new insights about these teachers or bilingual education.

This dissertation took into consideration the rationale that the level of implementation of bilingual programs is dependent upon the needs and regulations of districts and states. Other studies similar to this but in other settings are recommended in order to learn how different or similar are bilingual teachers from other regions. Further, because the field of education changes over time, due to policy changes and emerging issues, future studies of this similar framework may be necessary to update what we know of bilingual teacher welfare.

Other ideas for future studies arose from the following questions raised by the study:

1. This study showed that there is a low value given to bilingual education. The questions surfacing are whether this negativity affects students and how? Also, does it affect their academic performance and to what degree?
2. Why do foreign language students at local colleges and universities choose not to enter the field of bilingual education?

3. That Hispanic minorities in the regular track are doing generally poorly on standardized achievement scores; research claims about second language learning; and that findings that teachers in the regular track lack training in meeting the needs of language minority students, are three important research findings outlining a potential study. Hispanic students (once they are mainstreamed after being in a bilingual program for three years) and teacher performance could be researched in order to gain insights on what issues must be corrected that to allow language minority pupils to perform at the level of their monolingual English peers.

In conclusion, in the search for more knowledge about the topic of bilingual teacher welfare, we will only encounter more questions. There is, however, a sense of confidence that this dissertation accomplished what it set out to do. The data found in this study lay the foundation for what we know of the topic and for questions that keep surfacing.

APPENDIX A

LETTER FOR TEACHERS WORKING IN BILINGUAL PROGRAMS

Date

Dear _____:

My name is Carmelo Borges, a graduate student at the University of Massachusetts Amherst. The subject of my doctoral research pertains to bilingual teacher welfare. Through the method of in-depth interviewing, I am focusing specifically on the experiences of bilingual teachers and the meaning they make of that experience.

You are being asked for your voluntary participation in an in-depth interview. I am conducting this research in order to gain clearer understanding of your experience and that of other bilingual teachers. I am also interested in your opinion about different aspects of your job as well as anecdotes (if any) that validate your opinions.

Please contact me with your response or if you have any questions at (413) XXX-XXXX. I anticipate your participation in this study and look forward to hearing from you so that we may set up an initial meeting date. Thank you for your attention.

Sincerely,

Carmelo Borges

APPENDIX B

LETTER FOR FORMER BILINGUAL TEACHERS

Date

Dear _____:

My name is Carmelo Borges, a graduate student at the University of Massachusetts in Amherst. The subject of my doctoral research pertains to bilingual teacher welfare. Through the method of in-depth interviewing, I am focusing specifically on the experiences of former bilingual teachers and the meaning they made of that experience.

You are being asked for your voluntary participation in an in-depth interview. I am conducting this research in order to gain clearer understanding of your former experience and that of other bilingual teachers. I am also interested in your opinion about different aspects of your job as well as anecdotes (if any) that validate your opinions.

Please contact me with your response or if you have any questions at (413) XXX-XXXX. I anticipate your participation in this study and look forward to hearing from you so that we may set up an initial meeting date. Thank you for your attention.

Sincerely,

Carmelo Borges

APPENDIX C

CONSENT FORM FOR TEACHERS WORKING IN BILINGUAL PROGRAMS

I. Introduction:

My name is Carmelo Borges, a graduate student at the University of Massachusetts Amherst. The subject of my doctoral research pertains to bilingual teacher welfare. Through the method of in-depth interviewing, I am focusing specifically on the experiences of bilingual teachers and the meaning they make of that experience.

II. The Interview:

You are being asked to be a participant in a 90-minute in-depth interview. I am conducting this research in order to gain clearer understanding of your experience and that of other bilingual teachers. I am also interested in your opinion about different aspects of your job as well as anecdotes (if any) that validate your opinions.

I am not seeking any specific answers to these questions, but just looking for your best recollections and sharing of your opinions and experiences. During the interview, however, I may ask clarifying questions, but mainly my role is to listen as you recreate your experience and detail your thoughts.

III. The Interview Process:

I will be handing you copies of the guide interview questions so that you have time to prepare and think over your experiences, thoughts and ideas thoroughly. At this point we will schedule a time to meet for the actual interview. The interview will be audio-taped and later transcribed by me. My goal is to analyze and compose the materials from your interview for possibly: (a) a written and oral presentation to my dissertation committee, (b) a dissertation I may write on Bilingual Teacher Welfare, (c) presentations to professional associations and others interested in this topic, (d) articles I may write on Bilingual Teacher Welfare, (e) and finally, I may use the transcripts for instruction purposes.

In all written and oral presentations in which I may use materials from your interview, I will use neither your name, names of people close to you, nor the names of other identifying people or organizations. Transcripts will be typed with pseudonyms for your name, the names of people close to you and other potential identifiers.

IV. Withdrawal Option:

While consenting at this time to participate in this interview, you may at any time withdraw from the actual interview process.

V. Excerpt Option:

While having consented to participate in the interview process and having done so, you may withdraw your consent to have specific excerpts from your interview as indicated used in any printed materials or oral presentations if you notify me within seven days of the interview.

VI. Additional Consent:

In signing this form, you are agreeing to the use of the materials from your interview as indicated in section III. If I later want to use material from your interview in any way not consistent with what is stated in this information, I will contact you to request your additional written consent.

VII. Financial Claims:

In signing this form, you are assuring me that you will make no financial claims on me for the use of the materials in your interview.

VIII. Medical Provisions:

In signing this form, you are thus stating that you will require no medical treatment from the University of Massachusetts or me should any physical injury result from participating in this interview.

At your request, I will be happy to supply you with an audio-tape or transcript copy of your interview.

I, _____ have read the above statement and agree to participate as an interviewee under the conditions stated above. My address and telephone number are: _____

Participant's Signature

Date

Interviewer's Signature

Date

APPENDIX D

CONSENT FORM FOR FORMER BILINGUAL TEACHERS

I. Introduction:

My name is Carmelo Borges, a graduate student at the University of Massachusetts Amherst. The subject of my doctoral research pertains to bilingual teacher welfare. Through the method of in-depth interviewing, I am focusing specifically on the experiences of former bilingual teachers and the meaning they made of that experience.

II. The Interview:

You are being asked to be a participant in a 90 minute in-depth interview. I am conducting this research in order to gain clearer understanding of your former experience and that of other former bilingual teachers. I am also interested in your opinion about different aspects of your former job as well as anecdotes (if any) that validate your opinions.

I am not seeking any specific answers to these questions, but just looking for your best recollections and sharing of your opinions and experiences. During the interview, however, I may ask clarifying questions, but mainly my role is to listen as you recreate your experience and detail your thoughts.

III. The Interview Process:

I will be handing you copies of the guide interview questions so that you have time to prepare and think over your experiences, thoughts and ideas thoroughly. At this point we will schedule a time to meet for the actual interview. The interview will be audio-taped and later transcribed by me. My goal is to analyze and compose the materials from your interview for possibly: (a) a written and oral presentation to my dissertation committee, (b) a dissertation I may write on Bilingual Teacher Welfare, (c) presentations to professional associations and others interested in this topic, (d) articles I may write on Bilingual Teacher Welfare, (e) and finally, I may use the transcripts for instruction purposes.

In all written and oral presentations in which I may use materials from your interview, I will use neither your name, names of people close to you, nor the names of other identifying people or organizations. Transcripts will be typed with pseudonyms for your name, the names of people close to you and other potential identifiers.

IV. Withdrawal Option:

While consenting at this time to participate in this interview, you may at any time withdraw from the actual interview process.

V. Excerpt Option:

While having consented to participate in the interview process and having done so, you may withdraw your consent to have specific excerpts from your interview as indicated used in any printed materials or oral presentations if you notify me within seven days of the interview.

VI. Additional Consent:

In signing this form, you are agreeing to the use of the materials from your interview as indicated in section III. If I later want to use material from your interview in any way not consistent with what is stated in this information, I will contact you to request your additional written consent.

VII. Financial Claims:

In signing this form, you are assuring me that you will make no financial claims on me for the use of the materials in your interview.

VIII. Medical Provisions:

In signing this form, you are thus stating that you will require no medical treatment from the University of Massachusetts or me should any physical injury result from participating in this interview.

At your request, I will be happy to supply you with an audio-tape or transcript copy of your interview.

I, _____ have read the above statement and agree to participate as an interviewee under the conditions stated above. My address and telephone number are: _____

Participant's Signature

Date

Interviewer's Signature

Date

APPENDIX E

INTERVIEW GUIDE QUESTIONS FOR TEACHERS WORKING IN BILINGUAL PROGRAMS

Submitted by: Carmelo Borges, graduate student at the University of Massachusetts
Amherst

Department: Education Administration, Doctoral Program

Topic: Bilingual Teacher Welfare

Please review the following questions and come prepared to discuss them in an interview to be held on: _____. Feel free to make notes for yourself.

Question 1: How do you feel your job, as a bilingual teacher is different from other teachers in your school or school system? (i.e. monolingual regular education, special education, Chapter I) Please make reference to your workload, instructional practices (native language instruction and multicultural education), curriculum, assessment practices and instructional resources available.

Question 2: Describe your interpersonal relationships with other teachers, your principal and other staff members.

Question 3: How do you perceive the status of the implementation of the bilingual program in your school to be? Why? How much staff development pertinent to bilingual program philosophy and instruction have you and your school received and what impact has that had on your school and yourself? Were the goals of bilingual education ever clear to you and perhaps your co-workers and other staff? If so or not, how does this impact your job? What do you think is the status of the bilingual program in your school building/district in comparison to the mainstream program, special education program, and foreign language program? Why?

Question 4: Has your school district provided your school with other professional staff (such as bilingual counselors, paraprofessionals and secretaries) and what impact has that had on your job? Were there any types of support programs (such as mentors) to provide you with guidance? If so or not, how does this impact your job performance?

Question 5: How does the diversity in the bilingual student population affect your job performance? Make reference to the students' socio-economic status, their family mobility and structure, their learning needs and styles, the different languages they speak, their length of stay in this country, and their need to become bilingual or assimilated.

Question 6: What would you say are your needs as a bilingual teacher inside and/or outside the classroom? Think about things that either your school district must provide and/or things that demand change in order for you to become a better teacher.

Question 7: What other factors do you perceive to highly affect your job as a bilingual teacher? (i.e. pay, certification, pupil/teacher ratio, school safety, support programs, policy changes, policy makers, media, interest groups, other careers, or personal matters)

Question 8: Prioritize at least three factors that have encouraged you to enter and continue to teach in a bilingual program?

APPENDIX F

INTERVIEW GUIDE QUESTIONS FOR FORMER BILINGUAL TEACHERS

Submitted by: Carmelo Borges, graduate student at the University of Massachusetts Amherst

Department: Education Administration, Doctoral Program

Topic: Bilingual Teacher Welfare

Please review the following questions and come prepared to discuss them in an interview to be held on: _____. Feel free to make notes for yourself.

Question 1: How did you feel your job, as a bilingual teacher was different from other teachers in your school or school system? (i.e. monolingual regular education, special education, Chapter I) Please make reference to your workload, instructional practices (native language instruction and multicultural education), curriculum, assessment practices and instructional resources available.

Question 2: Describe your interpersonal relationships with other teachers, your principal and other staff members.

Question 3: How did you perceive the status of the implementation of the bilingual program in your school to be? Why? How much staff development pertinent to bilingual program philosophy and instruction was provided and what impact did this have on your school and yourself? Were the goals of bilingual education ever clear to you and perhaps your co-workers and other staff? If so or not, how did this impact your job? What did you think was the status of the bilingual program in your school building/district in comparison to the mainstream program, special education program, and foreign language program? Why?

Question 4: Did your school district provide your school with other professional staff (such as bilingual counselors, paraprofessionals and secretaries) and what impact did this have on your job? Were there any types of support programs (such as mentors) to provide you with guidance? If so or not, how did this impact your job performance?

Question 5: How did the diversity in the bilingual student population affect your job performance? Make reference to the students' socio-economic status, their family mobility and structure, their learning needs and styles, the different languages they speak, their length of stay in this country, and their need to become bilingual or assimilated.

Question 6: What would you say were your needs as a bilingual teacher inside and/or outside the classroom? Think about things that either your school district should have provided and/or things that must have changed in order for you to become a better teacher.

Question 7: What other factors did you perceive to highly affect your job as a bilingual teacher? (i.e. pay, certification, pupil/teacher ratio, school safety, support programs, policy changes, policy makers, media, interest groups, other careers, or personal matters)

Question 8: Prioritize at least three factors that discouraged you from continuing to teach in a bilingual program?

APPENDIX G

PROFILES

Former Bilingual Teachers

- Ximar-- is a Hispanic female in her fifties, native of Puerto Rico, who worked for two years in a bilingual program teaching middle school grades prior to transferring to the regular education program. Soon, she left teaching to go on to the field of education administration. In Puerto Rico, she worked in the public schools for 24 years and has experience in both teaching and administration.
- Barbara-- is a Caucasian female in her mid-forties, who obtained a teaching degree in the United States but studied foreign language in Madrid, Spain. She worked in one bilingual program at the elementary level for 9 years prior to transferring out of the program. Ever since, she's worked in the foreign language program teaching at all levels in four different schools.
- CC-- is an Asian female in her early thirties. She initiated her teaching career in a bilingual program where she worked for only one year prior to transferring to the regular track, where she also worked for one year. She left the career to work as a student advisor at the university where she obtained her degree.
- Pedro-- is a Hispanic male in his thirties, who worked in two bilingual programs (regular and special bilingual education) for five years prior to leaving the teaching career and entering the medical field. Although, he obtained his bachelor's degree in Puerto Rico, he started teaching in the target setting.
- Maria-- is a Hispanic female, native of Puerto Rico, in her late forties, who initiated her teaching career in a bilingual program and worked for one year prior to leaving the teaching career and entering the field of social work. Her education and training was obtained at a local university.
- Juan-- is a Hispanic male, native of Puerto Rico, in his late twenties, who worked in the bilingual program for two years prior to transferring to the regular track. He has only worked in one high school, but has previous teaching experience in Puerto Rico at the middle and high school levels.
- James-- is a Hispanic male in his late thirties, native of Puerto Rico, who worked in bilingual programs (in two schools--elementary and high school) for three years. Later, he transferred to the foreign language program and later gained some teaching experience at the university level. He worked in Puerto Rico as a teacher at the middle and high school levels for thirteen years.
- Delia-- is a Hispanic female in her mid-forties, from Puerto Rico, who worked in a bilingual program for two years and transferred to the foreign language program where she's worked for twelve years at upper grades. She also has teaching experience in Puerto Rico at the middle school and university levels.

Active Bilingual Teachers

- Valerie-- is a Russian female in her early forties. She's been working in a bilingual program for nine years where she's gained experience at the elementary and middle school levels. In addition, she has ten years of teaching experience in Russia.
- Ana-- is a Russian female in her mid-thirties. She's been working in bilingual programs for 10 years in two different schools where she has acquired experience at the elementary and secondary levels. In addition, she has six years of teaching experience in Russia.
- T-- is an Asian female, native of Vietnam, in her mid-fifties. She's been working in bilingual programs for 12 years, in two different schools, and has experience at the elementary and high school levels. In addition, she has 13 years teaching experience in Vietnam at the middle school level.
- Thu-- is an Asian female, native of Vietnam, in her early 30's. She initiated her career in a bilingual program. She has worked in two school districts, both at the elementary level, for ten years.
- Jane Doe-- is a Caucasian female in her forties. She's been working in bilingual programs for approximately twenty-five years in at least four schools where she has also gained experience in teaching ESL. She obtained her degree in the United States but studied foreign language in Madrid, Spain.
- Sarah-- is a Caucasian female in her late twenties. She's only worked in a bilingual program for two years. However, she has previous experience teaching in Puerto Rico, where she also learned Spanish, at the elementary and middle school levels.
- Javier-- is a Hispanic male in his late forties. He's worked in bilingual programs since the mid 1970's in at least three different schools where he's gained experience at the middle and high school levels. He also has some teaching experience in Puerto Rico.
- Petronila-- is a Hispanic female in her early fifties. She began working in bilingual programs in 1969, this was before bilingual programs were formally instituted in the target setting. She's worked in three different schools and has teaching experience at all levels. Other experience pertains to ESL and foreign language. She obtained her teaching degree in Puerto Rico but initiated her career in the target district.

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